

Junior College Journal

ANNUAL MEETING AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES
March 3-5 : Hotel Sherman : Chicago, Illinois

NOVEMBER 1954 : VOLUME XXV : NUMBER 3

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL is published monthly from September to May, inclusive. Subscription: \$3.50 a year, 50 cents a copy. Group subscriptions, to faculty of institutions which are members of the American Association of Junior Colleges: \$2.00 a year. Communications regarding editorial matters should be addressed to James W. Reynolds, College of Education, The University of Texas, P.O. Box 7998, Austin 12, Texas. Correspondence regarding advertisements and subscriptions should be addressed to Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Entered as second-class matter November 22, 1938, at the Post Office at Washington, D.C., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Austin, Texas, August 26, 1949.

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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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Preparing for the Flood

HUGH G. PRICE

HOW WILL junior colleges meet the anticipated expansion of college enrollments in the next decade or more?

The officers, Board members, and chairmen of the service and research committees of the American Association of Junior Colleges last summer determined that the March, 1955, convention of the Association will focus its attention on the expansion problems which junior colleges must face in the near future. At their meeting in Boulder these men and women viewed with alarm the tidal wave of enrollments which have been gradually engulfing the elementary and secondary schools, and which certainly no later than 1970 will sweep with full force into higher educational institutions.

This anticipated engulfment has brought about a "time for decision in higher education," reports Ronald B. Thompson in a bulletin of the American Council on Education. Every institution which serves post-high school young people must certainly anticipate a steady increase in enrollment for the next 15 years; and if plans for expansion are not made now, American col-

President of the American Association of Junior Colleges, HUGH G. PRICE is well known in educational circles. He is Director of Ventura College in Ventura, California, and has had several articles published in the *Journal*.



leges and universities will not be prepared for the flood stage of enrollment when it hits.

The burden of junior colleges in increasing their capacity becomes quite obvious if one carefully analyzes the enrollment statistics. This burden is not to be carried alone by public institutions but must be borne jointly by private institutions as well. Often it has been said that the junior college is a more flexible unit than the four-year college or university and can quickly respond to the local needs of its constituency. This fact is particularly true in the case of the public institution. Junior colleges must, however, do long-term planning at this time, rather than hope that quick adjustment might come about when the horde of students is suddenly upon them.

The publication, "A Call for Action," published by the American

Council on Education, states that estimated college-age population trends from 1953 through 1970 indicate there is to be wide variation among the states. It must be acknowledged that there are a certain few states where the percentage of increase in 1970 over 1953 will be very small. It is predicted, for example, that only a 15 per cent increase in the college-age population will be found in the State of Oklahoma. In California, on the other hand, an increase of 230 per cent is expected. The increase predicted for the entire United States is about 70 per cent.

The popularization of higher education which has come about as the result of a number of forces, is bound to increase the percentage of the college-age population which will be headed for higher education. Popularization plus the higher birth rate is responsible for the great increase.

What can be done about this situation? Even now it is possible for any public junior college administrator to take action. If he knows the proportion of the elementary school students who finally graduate from local high schools, and the proportion of high school graduates who enter his junior college, he will have at least a "rule of thumb" to apply which will give him some indication of the enrollment he may expect at some future date. Then if he "counts noses" in his local elementary schools, he can surely identify the extent of the problem he faces in the future.

In some areas where it will not be possible for the four-year colleges to expand to care for their share of the increase in enrollment, it may be necessary for the junior colleges to anticipate an even greater proportion of the high school graduates to enter their institutions. Some four-year colleges have indicated that they will place greater emphasis on enrolling upper division students, and leave the lower division students to the junior colleges.

President Robert E. Burns of the College of the Pacific, in a recent address, pointed out that the greatest migration in the history of the world has resulted in a great influx of people into California. Add this migration to the birth rate and the popularization of college education, and an even greater problem is concocted. Already the junior colleges of California have forecast their enrollments for 1960, '65, and '70.

Every junior college administrator must face this problem of increasing enrollments and must inform his constituency so that his institution may secure the financial support it needs as it prepares buildings and equipment in preparation for the future. The role of the junior college is to care for the needs of all post-high school young people. Only careful study, planning, and building will make it possible for junior colleges to be ready to meet the housing need when the student flood arrives.

The Silver Iodide Lining

ROBERT J. HANNELLY

JUNIOR COLLEGE deans often run into unexpected adventures!

On a bright October morning, Amos, chairman of engineering, phoned to ask me if it was okay to accept nine containers of silver iodide as a gift. Eagerly, I agreed, for Amos and I had participated in some hair-raising rain-making experiments involving dry-ice, silver iodide, and airplanes a few years before. Our common interest in meteorology dates from war time, and these experiments in the United States and Mexico received international publicity. We gave the clouds a silver iodide lining. But that is another story.

Back to this silver iodide. Visualizing it in powder form, we requisitioned the high school and college system truck to pick the containers up at Sky Harbor, the local airlines terminal. Bill, the pickup driver, found the place, but Chuck Barnes, the professional rain-maker, was out of town. The attendant pointed out the containers near a fence with the remark, "They've been smoking lately."

With some misgivings, Bill loaded them, and they smoked in the sun all of the eight miles to the college campus.

Vice-Chairman of the Curriculum Committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges, ROBERT J. HANNELLY serves as Dean of Phoenix College in Phoenix, Arizona. He has published articles in a number of professional magazines, including the NEA Journal, Bulletin of NASSP, and the Junior College Journal.

Bill asked Ned, the custodian foreman, where to put them. Ned apprehensively reached for the telephone and called Schof. Schofield, the busy supervisor of buildings and grounds for eight large schools, whose office is loaded with a thousand requests the first weeks of the term, barked back, "I don't give a continental what you do with them!"

Ned, now on his own, ordered them laid out carefully in a row behind the cafeteria-shops building. They were still smoking. Now silver iodide in powder form doesn't smoke. But this was, unexpectedly, in a liquid solution. Whatever it was, it had eaten through one of the metal containers. Ned dropped an old rag in the portion spilled out on the asphalt, and it turned black and disintegrated. Powerful stuff! Each container, which held about three gallons, was cylindrical with hemispherical ends and contained a three-quarter inch plug in the end

as well as a quarter-inch sealed pipe extending along the side.

I became concerned about the location of the containers, since about 2,000 people walked within 50 feet of them every day. Just as I was ready to ring Amos, he called me to say that his brother had passed away in Pasadena and that he might have to go to help out.

Now I was on my own. When I spotted Abe at coffee in the cafeteria, I said to myself, "Here's my man! All biologists know chemistry."

Abe guessed that the containers held some sulphuric acid and allayed my anxiety somewhat by saying they were not dangerous. He said that clear sulphuric acid interacting with metal became a black salt. However, a gnawing anxiety prompted me to write a triplex memo to Arthur, Smith, and Al. I asked for their scientific judgment as chemists. Arthur, chemistry chairman, said in a memo that the containers were worthless and why should I ask three chemists? Al replied in a memo that it was sulphuric acid and was not dangerous. Smith didn't reply until I saw him in person, and then he said the same as Al. But when a chemist says a chemical is not dangerous, he means if you know how to handle it.

Thank heaven Amos got back into action by now. He brought out Mr. Mann, chief chemist of the Salt River Valley Water Users' Association. Mr. Mann put a bit of the black stuff on

his hand and said, "Sulphuric acid. Where's a faucet?"

Now it was my understanding that the first touch of water to sulphuric acid made it burn human flesh more vigorously. About this I am still confused.

I phoned Harold, the Superintendent of Schools, to tell him what was cooking.

"If I can recover twenty pounds of silver, I'd be a dope to throw the stuff away," I said.

He agreed but recommended care and scientific analysis.

Finally, however, convinced that the drums were worthless, Amos, with my approval, requisitioned Ned and his custodians to remove the plugs and pour the stuff out in a sink.

The next afternoon they took the containers out in the open space on the campus, tied a rope to a container, and removed the plug. Immediately a screen of foul-smelling smoke worked its way to the edge of the campus. As it approached the residences across the street, the custodians became apprehensive lest the neighbors call the police, for every house had an evaporative cooler drawing air in at the rate of 4,000-7,000 cubic feet per minute. They dragged the container with the rope so that the smoke would have farther to go to get to the houses.

Ned, after phoning Amos, decided on a different method to empty the second one. They buried it in the ground about a foot-and-a-half deep.

Jim took a pointed iron rod, pushed it through the dirt to the container, and hit it with a hammer.

Jim was taken to a nearby hospital for first aid. Clair, the system comptroller, came into my office to say the men had decided they were not hired to work as a demolition crew.

Just then Jack's secretary phoned to say they could take me in ten minutes. Jack, a graduate of Phoenix College, is a dentist. Worried about Jim, I sat fairly still while Jack removed two lower molars. The only hitch was that with the whole lower jaw and tongue anesthetized, I couldn't talk.

At home I asked Gene in "Mortimer Snerd" English to phone Amos to say that we would be over. Fern said Amos had left for night school, but he would phone afterwards.

About eight I could talk well enough to phone Jim's house. His son said he would be back soon and would call. He did. The injury was a burn over the little finger and the outside of the ring finger of one hand. He was cordial, played down the injury, and hoped there would be no repercussion. So did I.

Soon afterward Amos called. We did an "Alphonse and Gaston" as to who should claim the responsibility. We were of one mind. We must personally get rid of the containers.

Amos brought his trailer hitched to his car the next morning. I phoned

Marshall, foreign language chairman, at eight. No answer. Try again. He said he was in the shower the first time. He kindly agreed to bring his 300 Savage and some shells to the college. By the time he gave me the gun, Amos had the drums loaded in the trailer. They were still smoking.

As I left my office, Harold, who was coming to ask me to revise a statistical report for the Board of Education, said, "This is a unique way to get target practice before the deer season."

When Amos and I passed the Encanto Grade School, a child yelled, "Hey, mister, your trailer's on fire."

We went out on the desert to the County Dump. The octogenarian in charge spotted the metal in the containers and recommended that we shoot into them close by so that he wouldn't have to carry them so far to salvage them. We thought that there would be danger from ricochetting bulletts; so we took them out farther and lined them up.

When I shct the first one, I couldn't draw a bead on any of the rest because of the smoke. Finally I shot the rest, one by one, from a side position.

Amos and I wended our dusty way to pavement and the campus.

I'd still like to know for sure whether those containers had a silver lining and how dangerous they were.

English Composition in Public Junior Colleges

MARVIN LASER

WHAT IS the state of English composition courses in public junior colleges today? What are the chief characteristics of such courses? Do (or should) they differ markedly from courses taught in four-year colleges? Are separate courses desirable for terminal students and for those planning to go on to the bachelor's degree? What is actually taught? What about communications rather than composition?

These are some of the pedagogical questions which have intrigued many junior college English teachers but which have not been explored as yet in any systematic way. To report what current practices actually are, insofar as they could be discovered, and to examine some of the problems implicit in them are the purposes of this article.

The method used was a questionnaire covering about 75 key items and sent to the head of the English department in each of the 315 existing accredited public junior colleges in the continental United States listed in Bogue's *American Junior Colleges* (3rd ed., 1952). Responses were received from 127 (40.3 per cent) of the colleges.

In distribution both geographically and by size, the colleges responding

An English teacher at Chicago Teachers College, MARVIN LASER formerly taught at Wilson Junior College. He has written articles for several literary magazines, and during 1953-54 held a Ford Fellowship, Fund for the Advancement of Education.

appear to be fairly representative of the entire group of 315. The survey was deliberately limited to public junior colleges on the grounds that in admission policies, aptitudes of students, class size, and several other factors which affect the teaching of English composition, these colleges tend to be more nearly similar to one another than they are to privately controlled junior colleges.

Although uniformity in the teaching of English composition is neither desirable nor attainable, it is reasonable to hope that the material presented here will furnish some objective guides for both junior college administrators and English staffs in the evaluation of present programs. Such material may provide a point of departure which can lead to fresh thinking about what is now being done or at least to a re-examination of the assumptions which lie beneath many current practices.

BASIC PATTERNS OF THE COURSE

A great deal has been said about what is usually called the "conventional" course in freshman composition, but the evidence suggests that this adjective is misleading. For it appears that at least two different sets of variables operate to determine the several basic patterns that now exist. One set has to do with what may be called the general conception of the course, expressed in terms either of the content or of the objectives; the other set concerns the span of time given to the course, that is, the total number of semester hours of credit as expressed usually in terms of formal graduation requirements. The familiar course names and catalogue descriptions do not, incidentally, always reveal the underlying distinctions; so far as course names are concerned, at least 25 different ones are now in use (the most common are, in this order, English Composition, Composition and Rhetoric, Freshman English, Freshman Composition, Communications Skills, and Composition and Reading).

An analysis of content and objectives suggests that five major patterns are now in use:

1. A course in English grammar and composition. This sort of course is concerned usually with parts of speech, sentence structure, punctuation, spelling, and other such matters. It is founded on the belief that mastery of the grammatical structure of modern English, together with practice in the writing of sentences,

paragraphs, and themes, will provide the student with the basic tools for effective communication. A book of readings is not used.

2. A course in composition and literature. Here an anthology, usually of masterpieces of British or American literature, is studied, either in chronological order or through "types." The writing in the course is concerned either with the literary texts themselves or with what are deemed to be important issues—esthetic, moral, sociological, psychological—growing out of them. There is some attention to instruction in grammar and rhetorical principles, but most of the time is necessarily devoted to the exegesis or discussion of the literary texts.

3. A course in reading and writing skills. This sort of course follows from the interrelationships that are thought to exist between effectiveness in reading and in writing. As in Type 1, there is much concern with fundamentals of grammar, mechanics, and techniques of composition. The readings are most likely to be collections of contemporary magazine articles studied for the interest in the ideas or occurrences discussed rather than for literary excellence. Usually the readings are intended to stimulate the student to self-expression in writing.

4. A course in reading, writing, and speaking. This is essentially similar to Type 3; however, conscious attention is given to oral communication so that, in addition to writing practice, students are expected to prepare and deliver from two to four talks, more or less formal, during the semester.

5. A course in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Usually this is described as a course in communications skills. Sometimes it is felt, however, that a full-fledged communications course is

not only concerned with these four skills (or additional ones) but also must involve considerable attention to the phenomena of language behavior and the mass communications media in contemporary society.

The composition or communications courses presently given in public junior colleges are distributed among the five major types in this fashion: Type 1 in 16.5 per cent of the colleges; Type 2 in 20.5 per cent; Type 3 in 25.9 per cent; Type 4 in 7.1 per cent; Type 5 in 26.8 per cent. (In the remaining 3.1 per cent of the colleges combinations of two or more types are employed.)

As for the second set of variables, the time span allocated to the course, responses showed the wide range that exists in terms of graduation requirements in composition or communications. Although in the most common procedure English composition is conceived of as a year course (two one-semester courses of three credit hours each), and this procedure actually exists in 65.3 per cent of all the colleges, there are several variations. Typically the year is organized so that completion of the first semester course is prerequisite to the second semester. In a few colleges, however (those, for example, in which the emphasis is on composition one semester and on literature in the other), either half of the course may be taken first. In other colleges, a preliminary subfreshman or remedial course is required of some stu-

dents so that a year and a half is needed for the total work in composition. In still others only a single semester of composition is required for graduation; in some there is this variation: the first semester course is required of all students, but the second semester course is an elective choice among such courses as speech, business writing, journalism, and so on. Finally, there are some colleges (3.1 per cent) in which no graduation requirement in English composition is imposed, so that one cannot speak of a basic course which all students must take.

One other time variation pertains to the number of weekly class meetings allotted to English composition. This number varies from as few as two meetings per week to as many as five; consequently, a year course may yield four hours of credit in some colleges and as many as ten hours in others—obviously this will result in wide differences in the amount of material covered as well as in the degree of proficiency expected.

These variations in the allocation of time, together with the variation in approach or objectives previously mentioned, point to the wide number of permutations and combinations in English composition courses in public junior colleges. Almost any statement one might make which is intended to be universally applicable to all these courses is likely, therefore, to be unrealistic.

COMPOSITION OR COMMUNICATIONS?

The emergence of communications courses or a "communications approach" has been perhaps the most publicized and the most disputed change in the teaching of English composition during the past decade. Whatever the reasons for and the sources of this change,¹ the junior college, no less than other levels of secondary and higher education, has felt its impact. About 36 per cent of the junior colleges responding to the questionnaire report that they have already adopted the methods of communications courses, and another 10 per cent indicate a desire to do so.

Numerous differences appear, however, in present concepts of communications courses, and it is not always a simple matter to identify clearly the kind of course actually being taught. As answers to the questionnaire showed, only 22 of the total of 46 colleges which identify themselves as offering a communications course indicate the fact in the course name. On the other hand, 25 colleges indicate

that what is regarded by the English staff as a communications course is still labeled English Composition. Confusion also works the other way; the catalogues of two large junior colleges list under the heading Communications only several courses in composition and in speech without a single integrated course in communications.

Distinctions which may tentatively help to define the communications courses are found in at least three areas: (1) the specific skills included; (2) the philosophical framework or orientation of the course; and (3) the materials which form the substance or content of the course. As for the first of these distinctions, responses showed that the most commonly included skills are reading, writing, speaking, and listening. In fact, almost 75 per cent of the communications courses are described as concerning themselves with these four skills; the other courses either reduce or enlarge the number (observing, thinking, and illustrating are the chief skills which may be added). But in more than half of the colleges using a communications approach, the major emphasis is placed on writing and reading, writing and speaking, or writing alone. To the extent that this is true, it is difficult to see any remarkable difference between these courses and several varieties of the composition courses in which, as everyone knows, a considerable amount of attention has long been given to improving skill in reading and

¹ See the publications of the National Council of Teachers of English, especially the journal *College English* and the series of volumes now appearing under the general title, *The English Language Arts*; see also Earl J. McGrath, ed., *Communication in General Education* (Dubuque, Iowa, 1949); Harold B. Allen, "Communication," in H. T. Morse, ed., *General Education in Transition* (Minneapolis, 1951), pp. 155-166; and B. Lamar Johnson, *General Education in Action* (Washington, D.C., 1952), pp. 139-173.

even in speaking. Is the ultimate test to be the presence or absence of instruction in listening?

Numerous variations are also displayed, in the second place, in the orientation of communications courses. The extent to which one or another of several possible frames of reference really operates, in the conscious knowledge of both teacher and students, and the ways in which the framework controls or unifies day to day assignments or larger units of instruction—these, unfortunately, are not matters which can be investigated very accurately by questionnaire. It will be recognized, however, that many composition teachers have long given time to units in the mass media (newspapers, magazines, and broadcasting, for example), in propaganda analysis, in language as sign or symbol, and so on. The degree to which such topics permeate the fabric of a course may constitute a valid test as to whether it is communications-oriented; up to now, however, the chief source of evidence has been impressionistic judgments or the testimony of enthusiasts.

For the third distinction—the materials which form the content of the course—the available evidence is too limited to warrant any conclusions. The textbooks used in communications courses were, with a single exception, not found to be different from those used in composition courses (a handbook, a book of readings, a rhetoric). The relatively low frequency

with which respondents have indicated that major attention is given to such topics as the nature of language, the mass media, or semantics (see Table 1) also reveals no significant differences between communications and composition courses. It has been said that many communications teachers make extensive use of radio or television broadcasts, tape recordings, and the like, but evidence of these practices was not sought for the present study.

To at least some extent, then, rather than envisioning a sharp dichotomy between composition and communications courses in public junior colleges, one should think of both as presently existing in a "mixed" rather than a "pure" state. To assert, as is sometimes done, that composition teachers are concerned only with "correctness" and communications teachers are concerned with the broad psychological, social, and cultural implications of the use of language is to describe mythical persons rather than real ones. However junior college communications courses may develop in the future, it is safe to say that at present they seem to reveal at most a shifting in emphasis rather than something brand new.

Questionnaire replies suggested that almost three-fourths of the colleges which employ some version of a communications approach are satisfied with its effectiveness. The fact that only two colleges expressed flat dissatisfaction and that four others were so far undecided must be taken for what

TABLE 1

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF ITEMS CONSIDERED AS MAJOR TOPICS IN EACH SEMESTER OF COMPOSITION (ARRANGED WITHIN SEMESTERS IN ORDER OF DECREASING FREQUENCY)

| Subfreshman level (47 colleges) | | Regular 1st semester level (127 colleges) | | Regular 2nd semester level (108 colleges) | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|--|----------------------------|--|----------------------------|----|
| Rank | Topic | Rank | Topic | Rank | Topic | |
| 1. | Spelling | 43 | 1. Paragraph dev. | 103 | 1. Research paper | 87 |
| 2. | Punctuation | 40 | 2. Punctuation | 101 | 2. Methods of organization | 83 |
| 3. | Grammar | 39 | 3. Grammar | 97 | 3. Imaginative lit. | 74 |
| 4. | Dictionary | 34 | 4. Dictionary | 97 | 4. Expository types | 71 |
| 5. | Vocabulary bldg. | 28 | 5. Vocabulary bldg. | 93 | 5. Style | 69 |
| 6. | Paragraph dev. | 25 | 6. Methods of organization | 90 | 6. Diction, usage | 66 |
| 7. | Reading skills | 24 | 7. Spelling | 88 | 7. Reading skills | 66 |
| 8. | Diction, usage | 18 | 8. Diction, usage | 87 | 8. Vocabulary bldg. | 64 |
| 9. | Library skills | 15 | 9. Outlining | 87 | 9. Library skills | 64 |
| 10. | Outlining | 13 | 10. Expository types | 78 | 10. Paragraph dev. | 61 |
| 11. | Methods of organization | 13 | 11. Library skills | 77 | 11. Outlining | 59 |
| 12. | Expository types | 10 | 12. Reading skills | 71 | 12. Logic, argument | 50 |
| 13. | Note-taking | 8 | 13. Nature of lang. | 49 | 13. Dictionary | 46 |
| 14. | Letter writing | 4 | 14. Note-taking | 46 | 14. Note-taking | 43 |
| 15. | Mass media | 4 | 15. Research paper | 40 | 15. Letter writing | 41 |
| 16. | Nature of lang. | 3 | 16. Style | 34 | 16. Semantics | 38 |
| 17. | Imaginative lit. | 3 | 17. Mass media | 31 | 17. Spelling | 36 |
| 18. | Semantics | 2 | 18. Imaginative lit. | 28 | 18. Nature of lang. | 35 |
| 19. | Style | 2 | 19. Semantics | 26 | 19. Mass media | 35 |
| 20. | Research paper | 1 | 20. Letter writing | 21 | 20. Punctuation | 32 |
| 21. | Logic, argument | 1 | 21. Logic, argument | 19 | 21. Grammar | 25 |

it is worth. One respondent noted, "We are satisfied with our conception of what a communications course is," and perhaps this is profoundly true in most instances.

Colleges which have so far retained one kind or another of composition course (63.8 per cent) outnumber almost by two to one those which have shifted to communications. The analysis of attitudes indicates varying shades of opinion ranging from those who have examined communications courses and believe them to be undesirable, to those open to change but not yet changing. One source of oppo-

sition to change exists in those colleges in which the English staff feels that within the limits of a three-hour per week, three-credit course no more can be added and nothing now taught can be left out. Some respondents have suggested that if it were feasible to increase class time to four or, better still, to five hours per week, it would be possible to retain the present amount of attention to writing and reading skills without diminution when speaking and listening are added as well as communications topics.

Since all but 12 of the 127 colleges hold presently to the three meetings

per week formula, it appears that in most of the communications courses, time has been made available by eliminating or minimizing some of the topics formerly taught. A few departments have achieved a saving in time by apparently reducing the requirement in written work (in several of the communications courses the number of required papers per semester is as few as four or five); others have limited the amount of time devoted to speaking (in several instances students have only two or three extended speaking experiences during a semester—in some they have even fewer). The wisdom of these adjustments is, of course, to be decided within the context of the individual college. Unless extreme superficiality is to result, however, it is obvious that something must come out of the course if a great deal more is to be inserted.

In those few colleges in which a separate course in speech is a graduation requirement for all students, there is apparent satisfaction with the present arrangement, and there is opposition to a forced wedding of all of the communications skills within a single course. Those who take this view, however, seem to be considering only one of the aspects which differentiate communications courses from composition.

One further view worth mentioning is that of the English staffs who feel that a communications course in college might be an excellent choice if their students came to them from high

school already equipped with competence in the fundamentals of writing. Since such competence is so often lacking, they say, it is the first duty of the college English staff to help develop it. This point of view will certainly not satisfy some of the strong proponents of communications courses. They would doubtless agree with S. I. Hayakawa, well-known as editor of *ETC* and as author of *Language in Thought and Action*, who has recently said, "Students of linguistic science believe their discipline holds more hope for the improvement of communication than old-fashioned instruction in English grammar, which tends to paralyze communication rather than facilitate it."²

TERMINAL OR TRANSFER?

The extent to which a basic (required) course in composition or communications achieves its objectives depends, of course, on how these objectives are formulated and on their relationship to the educational goals of the student, the mission of the individual college as a whole, and the demands made by contemporary society on its citizens. Still, whether the college is curriculum-centered (as in the College of the University of Chicago), student-centered (as at Bennington or Stephens), or community-centered (as in some of the newer community colleges), English staffs as a rule, whether in junior colleges or in other levels of

² Chicago *Sun-Times*, March 14, 1954, sec. 2, p. 4.

higher education, state their objectives in terms like these: (1) to improve the student's ability to communicate clearly and effectively in writing and speaking; (2) to improve the student's ability to read critically; (3) to teach the student to think logically. Here and there one may find more particularized statements which add to the above such objectives as these: (1) to help the student acquire language habits that accord with modern standards of good usage; (2) to impart to the student a working knowledge of basic tools—the library, dictionaries, reference books; (3) to improve the student's ability to handle reading and writing assignments in other college courses.

Whether the course in composition or communications designed for junior college students should somehow differ from the course given at the freshman level in four-year colleges—because of the terminal nature of junior college work for so many students—cannot be answered simply or dogmatically. To the extent that the English language arts are held to form an indispensable part of general education, every student, regardless of his ultimate vocational destiny, presumably needs to acquire at least a minimum of competence in the skills involved. Although education in public junior colleges by and large is actually terminal for most students rather than preparatory to continued college study,

almost three-fourths of the junior colleges (71.6 per cent) offer a basic composition or communications course which is said to be comparable or parallel to that given in nearby four-year colleges or in the state university. Is this because English staffs are so misinformed about their students that they insist on preparing everyone for a B.A. program? Or is it rather, as the evidence suggests, that the majority of English teachers insist that competence in the arts of reading and writing (not to mention the other skills) is a *sine qua non* for every citizen?

Only 3.9 per cent of the junior colleges state that their basic composition or communications course is specifically intended to be terminal; in another 14 per cent of the colleges separate courses are offered for terminal and for prospective transfer students (in a number of these colleges, terminal students take the communications course, students preparing for four years of college take the composition course). One terminal course is described as "including such representative subjects as social and business letter writing; making out forms and applications, including income tax forms and job applications; evaluation of newspapers, motion pictures, radio and television programs; punctuation; spelling; vocabulary building; and simplified parliamentary procedures."

To the extent that courses of this kind or courses in what is called Busi-

ness English, Engineering English, English for Medical Secretaries, or Pre-Agricultural English are intended to replace the basic course taken by other students, it appears that the terminal label signifies an effort to shift emphasis away from the older goals of effective writing, critical reading, and logical thinking and toward what are conceived as being "practical," workaday, vocationally slanted goals. Whether courses organized in so specific and limited terms as these will, in the long run, serve the student better or worse is a real problem. The point at issue is not whether instruction in filling out income tax forms and job applications should form part of a junior college course in English (certainly these are areas of written communication in which almost everyone will necessarily participate sooner or later), but whether the student who obtains instruction of this kind is also getting all the instruction he needs to develop at least minimum competence in the English language arts.

Several respondents make it clear that they are sympathetic to the idea that the teaching of composition can be improved and revitalized, but that they are opposed to "functional" courses labelled as terminal, on the grounds that such courses issue from desperation rather than from strength, that they are an attempt to find an easy way out of the problem of what to do with students in low-ability

groups.³ The practice of the majority at present seems to be in accord with this view.

WHAT IS BEING TAUGHT

An examination of the topics held to be of major importance in the various levels of composition or communications courses points to the widespread (although not unanimous) belief that there are some irreducible minimums. Whether this belief results from the training and experience of English teachers, from their analyses of persons skilled in the arts of communication, from their understanding of the roles played in society by effective citizens, or from unsupported preconceptions is not known and is perhaps unknowable. Nevertheless, the data received illustrate what these minimums are thought to be (see Table 1).

At the subfreshman (or remedial) level, spelling, punctuation, grammar, use of the dictionary, vocabulary building, paragraph development, and reading skills—in this order—are the topics considered to be of major importance in more than half of the colleges offering such a course. Only the

³ An alternative to terminal composition courses is a course intended to help students overcome the deficiencies which inhibit them from doing successful work in the regular composition sections, that is, a remedial course taken prior to the regular course. For a description of such a course see Cornelius B. Weber, "What about Students with Deficiencies in Writing?" *Junior College Journal*, XXIV (November, 1953), 147-151.

relatively low rank of letterwriting (14th in rank among the 21 topics and stressed as important in only four colleges) and the relatively high position of paragraph development (sixth in rank) may be surprising. The degree of proficiency expected in these minimum requirements may vary from college to college; yet it is clear that many English staffs believe that despite three or four years of high school instruction in English, students who are assigned to remedial classes can profit from further practice.

Topics considered of major importance in the regular first semester course in at least half of the colleges include all of those mentioned above (although in a somewhat different order) and, in addition, methods of organization, diction and levels of usage, outlining, expository types, and library skills.

The regular second semester course in the majority of colleges takes mechanics for granted, for at this level it is the techniques of the research or term paper, reading of imaginative literature, and the study of style, logic, and argument which are foremost among the topics stressed. In only about a third of the colleges are certain communications topics—semantics, the nature of language, and the mass media—listed as major in importance. Note, by the way, the diminished attention to spelling, punctuation, and grammar—all near the bottom of the list and all therefore evi-

dence of the belief that after a semester's work, students can attain a satisfactory degree of competence in such matters.

There are obvious limitations in the present data. Evidence is lacking of the amount of time given to each "major" topic and of what specific elements are taught, for example, in grammar or punctuation. At the same time the evidence does suggest that the attainment of fundamental skills needed for clear writing is a paramount concern. The requirements in writing, as shown by the questionnaire responses, call for nine or more papers per semester in more than half of the colleges. A minimum of one paper per week is required in about a third of the colleges; and even more than one paper per week is required in a few colleges.⁴

The emphasis on skill in writing undoubtedly accounts for the high ranking of such topics as paragraph development, expository types, methods of organization, diction and levels of usage, and others. Proficiency in these topics is being sought, then, not as an end in itself but as a means to the achievement of clear, coherent, and

⁴ Data obtained concerning the usual length of papers seemed too indeterminate to permit systematic tabulation. Typically, however, subfreshman papers are 100-300 words long, first semester papers are 300-500 words long, and second semester papers are at least 500 words long. In a few colleges the usual papers may be only a paragraph or two in length; on the other hand, in some colleges the term paper may run to 5,000 words or more.

literate writing. Some of these elements are not involved at all in oral communication (nor are spelling and punctuation), and some others are of less importance in many forms of oral communication than they are in writing. If emphasis on effective writing is to remain as a major objective in junior college composition courses, it is evident that much attention will continue to be given to such topics.

The form of required writing in all three levels of composition courses continues preponderantly to be a theme, that is, a more or less formally developed essay addressed to a generalized audience. (This is true of sub-freshman courses in 60 per cent of the colleges, of first semester courses in 80 per cent of the colleges, and of second semester courses in 68 per cent of the colleges.) Such forms of writing as letters, reports, or editorials are less commonly used. The distinction in forms may be unimportant; a few respondents said that they failed to discern any important differences resulting from the medium employed, that if a student could learn to write clear and coherent themes, he could easily adapt himself to this or that specific mold. Be this as it may, the writing of papers which grow out of the student's own experience and observation or out of his reading (in the composition course or, occasionally, in other courses) is the single most important activity in almost all composition courses now being given.

Systematic practice in speech is characteristic, on the whole, of communications rather than composition courses, although it is clear that many composition teachers find time for incidental practice in speech; then too, as has been pointed out earlier, a separate course in speech is a formal requirement in a number of colleges. In the communications courses, curiously enough, the amount of speaking practice gained by the individual student seems to be limited. Although the data must be termed inconclusive, the typical response shows that no more than three or four extended speech experiences per semester can be expected for each student. And there is the anomalous instance of one college in which the students in the communications course have no extended speech experience at all!

It is likely that both large classes and limited time are the reasons for the relatively small amount of speaking practice which can be squeezed into communications courses, at least so long as such courses are confined to the usual three-hour per week basis. Even under optimum conditions in a class limited to 20 students, and with talks of no more than four or five minutes' duration, three or four class meetings are usually required to get around the class and to provide ample time for discussion and comment. Even as few as four such assignments, therefore, will use up 25 per cent of the total class time available for the semes-

ter. So long as the three-hour per week pattern continues, the alternatives appear to be these: (1) cut drastically the time given to practice in reading and writing skills so as to afford sufficient time for speaking practice; (2) limit speaking practice to the point where it is doubtful whether the student gains very much from the experience (this seems to be the most typical present procedure); (3) require a separate speech course. On the other hand, if the time for a communications course can be extended to four or five meetings per week—preferably five—fewer misgivings would be felt, for sufficient attention could then be given to the multiplicity of skills involved in such a course.

CONCLUSIONS

A composition-oriented course continues to be the dominant pattern in public junior colleges. Whether the emerging trend to communications courses will increase in the future is

not yet clear. But as long as English staffs continue to be convinced of the central importance of improving students' competence in writing, it is obvious that, whatever future courses may be called, writing skills will continue to play the major role.

To learn the skills of writing, most composition teachers apparently agree, an adequate foundation in fundamentals is necessary and at least one semester must be given to provide this foundation; an additional semester is then needed to furnish practice in what may be called the larger skills of writing.

The majority does not believe at present that a junior college course in composition should be essentially different from that given in four-year colleges. Nor do most English staffs presently believe that terminal and transfer students should be enrolled in different kinds of freshman composition courses.

Adults Enjoy Home Landscaping Courses

MORTON BINDER

A HOME landscaping course given at Pierce Junior College in California has proven popular and may be just as valuable in other junior colleges throughout the country.

Since the first offering of the course in Home Landscaping in 1950, there has been increasing interest shown in this new course. With the spring semester two weeks away and enrollment not officially open, the class was filled, and 54 signed up on waiting lists.

This interest proves two points: First, if the course is geared to the needs of the community, there will be a good take. Second, people are interested in coming back to school if they can get what they want.

The course was initiated by Mr. Morton Binder, Landscape Architect, now permanently associated with the Pierce Junior College in Canoga Park, Calif., as instructor of Landscape Design and Floriculture. Mr. Binder, who spent 17 years in the trade before entering the teaching field under the T. and I. credential, brought with him much first-hand information that has proven most helpful in answering the questions of the several hundred students who have now completed the

A licensed landscape architect and Instructor of Landscape Design at C. W. Pierce Junior College and at the Los Angeles City Schools, MORTON BINDER is a Consultant to Sunset Magazine, and has written for a number of garden and nursery publications.

course. This same type of course, geared to the needs of any growing community, could possibly be taught by the local landscape architect or garden designer.

An all-out attempt must be made to slant the contents of the course to the actual problems of the class at hand. The suggested course outline offered at the conclusion of the article may prove of value in organizing the material in order to cover the subject within the semester period. It will be most important to have long enough lab periods to work with each homeowner at each class session.

The use of mimeographed symbol templates to trace over will assure professional appearing plans. Lettering can be kept to a minimum for those who have difficulty in printing. Lettering guides and mimeographed guide sheets will also help to standardize the printing for sake of appearance.

In order to learn plant material it is

suggested on the first meeting that the home-owner send for two or three good nursery catalogues and plan on spending some time each week in local nurseries if this is possible. Field trips to nicely landscaped homes and parks will aid in visualizing the ultimate growth and appearance of plant material. In class $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch scale model shrubs and trees are used by the students to work out heights and placement before actually choosing plant material. These models are available from Pierce College Book Store.

Other valuable teaching aids include blow-ups of good sketches from the various garden magazines. Former student drawings, professional drawings and the identification of plant material from week to week as the students bring them to class will also prove valuable. Mimeographed lesson sheets are used in the class at present but will be supplanted by a text, *Landscaping for Pleasure or Profit*, written by Mr. Binder.

It is also suggested that the instructor make up plant lists of the local material breaking it down into these categories: By exposure (North, South, East or West); by height; and possibly by cultural requirements. Tree lists and pictures may also prove valuable.

The following course outline is the outcome of 25 classes which have taken this course. It is submitted with the hope that other junior colleges throughout the country may wish to start such a course.

PIERCE JUNIOR COLLEGE

Canoga Park, California

Course Outline: Home Landscaping,
OH 61

Lesson 1. Course outline and objectives, equipment needs and requirements. Baloptic on "Landscape Styles" *S.A. Send for nursery catalogues, bring drawing equipment.

Lesson 2. How to Use Drafting Equipment, "Symbol Sheet"; "Lettering Guide"; Practice drawing, lining symbols, lettering. S.A. Practice on same at home.

Lesson 3. "How to Map in House and Lot." Job sheets for special problem lots. Field trip to instructor's home to inspect design and plant materials. S.A. Begin mapping in your home.

Lesson 4. "Home Owner's Approach to Landscaping." Use of a check list. Use of designers' aids and models. Practice with same. S.A. Complete mapping your home.

Lesson 5. "Divisions of the Yard: Placement of Walks; Fencing and Enclosure." Determine major divisions of yard. Lay out walks. Discuss fencing. S.A. Bring in catalogues; tree samples.

Lesson 6. "Where to Plant Trees" and "Tree Chart." Identification of trees; locate for *type* and *size* on drawing. S.A. Begin to fill in tree chart.

Lesson 7. "How to Develop the Front Yard," "Proportions of Lawns to Ground Cover." Begin to lay out front yard; lawn shape. Check catalogues. Begin to select shrubs. S.A. Work on front yard design and plants.

Lesson 8. "How to Plan the Side Yards and Service Area." Work out
*S.A. refers to *Student Assignments*.

details on plan. S.A. Bring in ideas on foundation planting.

Lesson 9. "Foundation Planting." Distribute "Exposure Lists." Complete front yard. Spot *all* foundation plants for shape and size. Name shrubs where known. S.A. Bring in shrub samples: 6" to 1' in length.

Lesson 10. "Choosing Plant Material by Color, Form, and Texture." Distribute "Shape of Shrubs" list. Discuss cultural requirements. S.A. Select plant material as you proceed.

Lesson 11. "How to Plan the Outdoor Living Room." Demonstrate use of "Sectional Planning" with templates. Check Sunset: H. B. Aul for ideas. S.A. Work on proportions of lawn and patio.

Lesson 12. "How to Plan the Shrub Border." Spot shrubs; trees. Choose varieties as far as possible. S.A. Bring in flowers for I.D.

Lesson 13. "How to Plan the Floral Border." Discuss flowers; floral catalogues; floriculture course. S.A. Locate possible floral borders.

Lesson 14. "How to Make up the Title Block and Plant List." Templates on same. Work on Title and Plant List. S.A. Complete drawing ready to copy.

Lesson 15. Copy the drawing for Black-line Ozalid and final coloring. Final suggestions prior to printing. S.A. Have 2 copies made.

Lesson 16. "How to Proceed with Your Plan." Hand in all assignments for checking. Compare drawings—add corrections.

Lesson 17. Final get-together. Field trip to be planned by class representative and group.

Cultural Background for Beginning Language Courses

HILDE JAECKEL

JUNIOR college students need increased stimulation in the study of foreign languages.

The importance of languages in our present world, methods of teaching and ways of creating greater interest in them, are discussed in books, articles, and at meetings. Yet enrollments in foreign language courses in high schools and colleges, far from increasing, have actually decreased since the "vogue" for such courses during and shortly after the second World War. While the picture may change in the future if the teaching of languages on the elementary level should prove successful, the present situation must nevertheless be dealt with. Language courses, especially in junior colleges where they are taught only for a period of two years, must offer the students at the beginner's stage a stimulation which has often been lacking. The actual wealth of learning material cannot be increased. If anything, it should be reduced to give more time for slow assimilation without pressure and haste. On the other hand, time and effort should be spent to create an atmosphere conducive to productive language study.

Head of the Modern Language Department at York Junior College in York, Pennsylvania, HILDE JAECKEL has published articles in Pennsylvania Bulletin and Berner Bund. She was born in Switzerland, studied in Germany, France, and Switzerland, and is now giving French conversation courses.

This objective can be achieved in different ways. Since educators everywhere are conscious of the problems, many have been tried. A fairly successful approach which has been attempted in the author's junior college may point the way to a fruitful language course for other junior colleges.

The main goal is to develop a better understanding of the people whose language the students are beginning to study, an understanding which will create greater motivation and desire to gain a knowledge of the language. Books, paintings, and music are the "aids" used for this purpose.

BOOKS

Modern books dealing with the people in question are read in English outside of class. These books are not translations of the classics which

should be read at a later stage in the original, but they are works of literary quality containing valuable and inspiring thoughts which will widen the student's mental outlook. A few examples may illustrate the point:

Anna Frank's diary of a young girl who spent her adolescent years in hiding from the Nazis until her brilliantly promising life was ended gives a picture of almost contemporary life, unfamiliar to the American student, while it reveals at the same time the well-known problems of adolescence.

Albert Schweitzer's autobiography, the story of one of the greatest humanitarians of our time who was filled with German and French culture, will be of special interest for future clergymen and scientists. The author's wealth of culture and the depth of his Christian philosophical thoughts as well as their practical application present unknown aspects of life to the reader.

Eve Curie's biography of her mother, Marie Curie, pictures conditions in Poland and France at the turn of the century, shows a young girl's struggle for education, a woman's complete devotion to science, and idealism embodied in a French genius.

The list could be continued indefinitely, differing according to the instructor's as well as the student's interests and tastes. Biographies, autobiographies, travel books, serious and humorous works, books presenting aspects of history, music, and art, all can be included and many more. It is

needless to say that this emphasis on reading books in English is meant only for the beginners. Later outside reading will be done exclusively in the foreign language, and the sooner it is started, the better.

PAINTINGS

Paintings are a wonderful means of making the student visualize more clearly the people whose language he is studying. Some paintings of certain schools seem to recreate the spirit of one period. The French impressionists, for instance, bring to life the gaiety and beauty of France and the charm of her people in the 19th century. The close connections between painters and writers of this time are worth discussing.

In paintings and woodcuts the German, Albrecht Durer, has succeeded among many other achievements in representing the German of the Renaissance. Maybe a comparison of these old pictures with some modern German portrait paintings would interest the student who would like to detect characteristics of a nation through art.

El Greco's long emaciated faces reveal a completely different picture of the Spaniard from that which the popular imagination has visualized. What a different world did Velazquez create! Questions concerning national traits often lead to interesting discussions.

Since the showing of paintings involves class time, the material has to be carefully selected in an effort to find the most characteristic paintings and also the very best reproductions. It is also advisable to expose the untrained student to only a few masterpieces at one time to avoid the danger of overwhelming him with so much unknown material.

MUSIC

The student's interest in music is in general keen, no matter whether he hears the most recent melodies of the popular Charles Trenet, who sings some children's songs in the foreign language. The singing of songs has proven stimulating and has also shown that many people can learn words and their pronunciation more easily when fitting the words to music.

In German classes the elementary reading of the funny adventures of the rogue, *Till Eulenspiegel*, become much clearer when accompanied by Richard Strauss' music of the opera of the same time.

The Faust motive discussed in most German classes, whether elementary

or advanced, has been used by many composers such as Wagner, Gounod, Berlioz, etc.

South American and Spanish dance music most certainly reveals the character of these nations. Spain's literary hero, *Don Quixote*, and his various deeds have stimulated Strauss in his music. The famous "Don Juan," first created in Spanish literature, has entered the musical stage as *Don Giovanni* in Mozart's opera.

The wealth of material is again immense and the classtime is limited. Therefore, paintings and music can only occasionally be used in the classroom, while books can be constant background material for the beginners in languages.

It is not the aim of this article to advocate an easy, culturally stimulating course in place of conversation, grammar, and reading the foreign language. On the contrary, it is only hoped that greater interest and understanding of the foreign nations will create a real desire to learn the language. Then languages will no longer be a separate neglected entity but will become an important, integral part of the humanity courses.

College Level Study Skills Programs— Some Observations

WALTER S. BLAKE, JR.

COLLEGE-LEVEL study skills programs are becoming more numerous. Twenty-four institutions are planning such programs for the near future, and many have begun them in the 1953-54 school year. Institutions of higher learning are enrolling anywhere from seven to 1,400 students in their programs in the United States and possessions, and all programs in which evaluations have been undertaken report favorable results. However most of the programs seem to resemble "Topsy" somewhat—they just "grewed up" without the benefit of the experiences of others, mainly because experiences in this field have not been reported in any appreciable measure.

In 1947 the University of Maryland began a program which also grew out of experimentation at Maryland largely rather than from experiences of workers in other programs. However, in 1953 a study was undertaken to survey and evaluate both the program at the University of Maryland and other programs in operation throughout the United States and possessions. Since the workers in the University of Maryland program feel that at least part of what they found out

Counselor and Instructor at the University of Maryland in College Park, Maryland, WALTER S. BLAKE, Jr. has written, along with George Wiegand, Assistant Dean of Students at the University of Maryland, a book on college orientation to be published by Prentice-Hall, Inc. around April of 1955. This article on college level study skills programs is based on Dr. Blake's doctoral thesis, which also is given practical application in the forthcoming book. Dr. Blake began, in 1948, the study skills laboratories for reading improvement and, in 1949, the study skills laboratories for improving academic and adjustment skills of probationary freshmen.

could benefit workers in other programs, the following highlights of the findings and recommendations from the study are presented:

1. Most programs offer services to a limited segment of the school population. Forty-two and two tenths per cent admit voluntary and referral students (probationers, etc.); 40 per cent admit only voluntary students, and 11.1 per cent require all freshmen to enroll (with a few taking voluntary students as well). Six per cent did not report in this area. The wide variation of admission policies is surprising, since the consensus is that any study skills program is composed of guidance services which should be available to the entire student body if the program is to attain its greatest effectiveness.

ness. All entering freshmen should be assigned to a program designed to indoctrinate them to the life on campus plus the minimal skills needed to achieve their goals at college and afterward; and the services of the program (tutorial, remedial reading, study skills and reading courses, counseling, etc.) should be open to *all* students who feel a need for such services.

2. The "remedial" aura still surrounds and plagues study skills programs in general. The remedial phases of most programs take precedence over the preventative phases, with the result that very few schools make provisions for helping any students other than those who *must* be helped. The "average" student is obliged to struggle along without assistance until he, or some faculty member, notices that he is about to fail, at which time "remedial" measures may be taken (if it is not already too late). In most institutions where no required program for freshmen is offered, faculty referrals and self-referrals are the only means available to help prevent academic failure and social maladjustment.

3. In many of the programs surveyed program-planning with students is conspicuously lacking. Small staffs and insufficient operating funds usually account for this lack; yet the absence of student-faculty planning is a serious shortcoming in programs of this kind. The types and extent of services offered should be the result of student-faculty planning, based upon research findings. One way to help insure student participation in the program is to incorporate student-faculty planning as a part of the program itself. Written student evaluations, soliciting student suggestions, interviews with students, consultation with student government leaders, and regularly scheduled student-faculty meetings

are useful methods. The main point here is this: faculty-seen needs are not necessarily student-seen needs—a well-known fact often overlooked. It is recognized that a well-trained faculty might know more about what students need than the students themselves, yet this obviously does not guarantee student acceptance of a program planned entirely by faculty members. Student-faculty planning might well be termed a "calculated risk" in the study skills area, but it seems no less essential than in any other situation where democratic procedures seem likely to produce the best results.

4. Research is being done neither in the minimal quantity of work necessary nor in the areas where it is most needed. The quantity of research needed will necessarily be governed by needs of individual programs, but every program needs research of the kind which will indicate (1) whether the program is achieving set goals, and (2) what needs to be done to improve the program. While it is true that program workers spend most of their time giving service (as do most people in the various branches of the teaching profession), it is equally true that a part of every worker's time needs to be devoted to research in the program if the program is to be successful, and if the workers are to have confidence in the program itself as well as their part in the program. Research is needed particularly in these areas: program evaluation, program improvement, and validation of diagnostic instruments.

5. Over half (51.1 per cent) of the programs surveyed do not give academic credit for participation in the formalized parts (classes in study skills and reading, mainly) of the programs. Credit is "expected" by college students, out of habit and tradition, for work done under the auspices of the institution. Good

or bad, it is nonetheless true that college credit is a motivating factor with college students—perhaps the most important single motivating factor. It is also true that student initiative is important to any student's success or failure in meeting or solving his problems. Therefore, it seems important to make the process of problem-solving in any group guidance situation as profitable as possible to students in order to nurture initiative. Some workers who do not give academic credit feel that some of the services rendered and some of the course materials and techniques used are not "college level" in terms of the conventional college-level courses. While such may actually be the case in many programs, the failure to grant some credit for work accomplished may doom good programs to ineffectuality, no matter how fine such programs may be potentially.

6. Study skills programs need people trained to work in study skills programs. At present nearly all workers are educators, psychologists, or other specialists not necessarily trained to be workers in study skills programs. Workers having majored in areas such as education and psychology might have some of the qualifications needed (like the desire to work with students); but workers could have the special qualifications needed only by chance. For example, educators do not usually learn abnormal psychology in their curriculums, and psychologists do not learn teaching methods; yet both abnormal psychology and teaching methods are acknowledged to be two of the

important special qualifications desirable for program workers by program workers themselves. Only one institution, out of the many contacted in the survey, offers a training program specifically for study skills program workers, yet hundreds of persons are now employed in such programs, and 24 institutions plan such programs for the future.

7. Study skills programs are not publicized adequately, as a rule—indeed, some are kept on a "confidential" basis among staff members. The reticence on the part of program workers to make their services known does a disservice to the student body and also prevents the programs from reaching their maximum level of effectiveness. Evidence points to frugal financing of such programs as well as lack of publicity about services offered as the basic reasons for curtailed services. Yet it seems certain that a program designed to help students cannot be kept secret from students and at the same time serve their needs. The publicizing of programs need not be the conventional advertising variety, of course; but the program should be made known to all students through written notices concerning services, hours, etc., articles in the campus literature which will reach and be read by both students and faculty, and any other device available to workers. The students and faculty who have received satisfactory service provided by the program will, of course, be the best publicity mediums once the program has been operating long enough to become known on the campus.

Joint Regional Workshop

ALFRED T. HILL

A THREE-DAY workshop held in June at Paul Smith's College in upper New York State covered seven fields of interest. Sponsored jointly by the Junior College Council of the Middle Atlantic States and the New England Junior College Council, it was attended by approximately 150 representatives—presidents, deans, directors of public relations, and faculty members—from about 32 institutions in the areas covered by these regional associations. Visitors came from as far away as North Dakota, Illinois, and North Carolina, and representatives attended from two State Departments of Education. The three-day conference covered the following fields:

Administration and Finance
Art of Teaching
Athletics and Health
Guidance and Testing
Library Science
Public Relations
Transfer Problems

This report is a condensation of the three papers presented at the Public Relations section by Ernest T. Stewart, Jr., Executive Secretary of the American Alumni Council; Bernard P. Taylor, Executive Director of the Penn State Foundation; and Charles

Public relations have long interested ALFRED T. HILL, President of Pine Manor Junior College and Director of Dana Hall Schools. Currently he is Chairman of the Subcommittee of Public Relations for the American Association of Junior Colleges, which now is planning to produce a manual on public relations for junior colleges. He also serves as Chairman of the Anniversary Announcement Committee of the NEJCC. Other articles written by Mr. Hill have appeared in the Journal.

E. Glendening, Head of the Educational Advertising Department of N. W. Ayer & Son, Inc.

Mr. Stewart addressed himself to the question: What are the responsibilities of the institution to its alumni? He noted that this was the reverse of the usual question: What can the alumni do for the institution? He answered his question by listing the ten following obligations of a college to its alumni:

1. To insure that a vigorous, productive program exists; to initiate one if it does not exist; to nurture it if it is dormant; and to encourage it if it is already doing the job. Mr. Stewart observed that times have changed from the old days when such programs sprang from the alumni themselves. Today they are usually sparked by a vig-

orous president working through an efficient office and organization.

2. To guarantee a firm financial base for the program even through partial subsidization if necessary.

In this connection Mr. Stewart pointed out that dues paying organizations were disappearing in favor of alumni funds. He added that any investment which a college made in the way of office space and help and in underwriting operating expense was soon made up many times in alumni gifts because of the interest and loyalty thus cultivated.

3. To maintain the fiction of independence for the alumni association. By every appropriate device, alumni should be made to feel that what they are doing for and with the college is voluntary. They want to believe that it is their alumni fund, their reunion, their homecoming, their banquet; they like to feel that they are responding to the invitation of their fellow alumni who sign the appeals. They want to regard the alumni magazine as their own—as the source of unprejudiced information about matters in which they have an interest. Even in tax-supported colleges, where legislative appropriations are not permitted for general alumni activities, partial subsidization—office space, funds for the maintenance of alumni records, salaries for some of the staff—is the rule and not the exception.
4. To provide avenues of communication between the institution and the alumni, such as: bulle-

tins, newsletters, reunions, gatherings both on and off campus, club meetings, banquets. "Never overestimate the amount of information your alumni have on any subject concerning the college; but never underestimate what they will be able to do once they have the facts."

5. To recognize that the alumni have come of age.

"There are many ways of demonstrating that recognition. Direct alumni representation on boards of trustees and other key policy groups is one; respect for the views of alumni councils is another. Many alumni are now serving as emissaries of their institutions at official functions and in such delicate areas as secondary school recruiting. Alumni advisory councils or committees are now sitting down with faculty by invitation, to bring 'to the consideration of university policy a kind of perspective and a breadth of experience which are not always found among those whose careers have been spent in academic life.'

6. To put alumni to work—use them or lose them.

"Their individual and collective talents must be utilized and developed if a program is to flourish. Ironically, the easy way out for an administrator is often to do a job himself without counsel or help. Skill is required, and he has a responsibility to apply it, to harness the energies and abilities of the alumni, to visualize a variety of assignments and the right man for each, to develop good men constantly for new and en-

larged duties, to nourish their sense of pride in accomplishment. 'Participation is as essential to democracy as energy is to physics' is a rule that applies equally to our democratic institutions."

7. To furnish the best possible education.
An alumnus doesn't owe his college anything if he got nothing from it. A satisfied student makes a loyal alumnus.
8. To continue the education of the alumni through institutes, bulletins, extension courses, placement bureaus, and various other services.
9. To accept alumni as the key to any program of public relations.
10. To uphold the institution's standards and to utilize its maximum resources to move constantly ahead. Alumni must be given ample reason for a continuing feeling of pride in their alma mater.

Mr. Stewart concluded the first part of the program with a discussion period of many practical problems related to organization of alumni clubs, fund-raising, publication of bulletins, and the services provided by the American Alumni Council.

Mr. Taylor took up the topic of fund-raising just where Mr. Stewart left off, namely, with the alumni. He cited the following statistics in his opening remarks:

"In 1953, alumni funds in American colleges and universities reached a new high in annual alumni giving. Three hundred and two institutions reported that 685,263 of their alumni

made annual gifts to their respective institutions totaling \$16,443,755, an increase of about two million dollars over 1952. The significance of this annual composite alumni gift to these colleges and universities can be greater appreciated when we realize that the amount given in 1952 would be the interest, at 4 per cent, on an endowment in excess of four hundred and eleven million dollars. Only the Ford Foundation with five hundred and fifty million dollars capital is large enough to give American education sufficient money to produce an annual income equal to that received by American colleges and universities annually through their alumni funds. And even the Ford Foundation would be out of business in less than two years if it continued to give away endowment funds in such fantastic amounts."

Next, Mr. Taylor asked the question: What is an alumni fund? and answered it as follows:

"An alumni fund is a plan of annual alumni giving. It is a permanently organized effort, whereby a non-profit educational institution solicits annual contributions from its alumni in such a way as to:

1. Receive cash contributions or pledges payable within the fiscal or calendar year.
2. Develop widespread participation.
3. Arouse and maintain a continuous concern for and interest in the institution.
4. Develop the habit of contributing regularly.

The alumni fund has certain distinguishing characteristics. It is conducted once a year. The fund must be well organized, but there should be an amateur spirit. Donors are rarely told what they are expected to give. All sized gifts from many is emphasized over large gifts from a few. The donor does not commit himself financially beyond the current year. The Alumni Fund is democratic—all can afford to give something, and names, but no amounts, are published. Permanency of the Fund is developed through widespread participation. The Alumni Fund becomes a continuing means of creating and maintaining alumni interest in the institution and its services.

Pointing out that a successful alumni fund must be founded on sound psychological principles with the object of developing a habit of giving, not making a sale, Mr. Taylor listed the following benefits to be derived from the fund plan:

1. The alumni, in a sense, become stockholders in the college, cognizant of and interested in its product, staff, educational program, needs, finances, and its future both in times of stress as well as prosperity.
2. Alumni become enthusiastic interpreters of and workers for the college and its program among fellow alumni, prominent individuals, special groups and organizations, and the "at large" with far-reaching, if not immediately apparent results; namely, bequests, appropriations, grants, and gifts.

3. The alumni improve their own positions as useful citizens in the estimation of the college, of individuals, and of groups with which they are associated.
4. A partnership between the college and its alumni is good for the college. It stimulates the college to clarify its program and to set aims and strive for their achievement. The college is encouraged to take frequent inventories to justify its place in education, and is prompted to review periodically its aims, ideals, and objectives.
5. The college by reporting frequently to its alumni and friends, thereby enlarges the evergrowing circle of its influence and usefulness.
6. A continuing sense of mutual responsibility between the college and its alumni is achieved, thereby motivating the colleges to provide such services to the alumni as placement and adult education. At the same time, the alumni are inspired to assist the college by interpreting the college to individuals and groups, assisting in new student enrollment and in the case of state universities, volunteering legislative support.

Mr. Taylor concluded his remarks by going into detail on some of the special techniques of fund raising such as personal solicitation, campaign organization, and approaching corporations and foundations. He indicated that most of the principles which applied to fund raising for four-year institutions applied with equal force to junior colleges. He was not much concerned over the junior college lament that "we

have 'em for only two years." He felt that alumni loyalty could be built perfectly well on a two-year foundation and that community support was of great importance in financing junior college development.

* * * * *

Mr. Glendening changed the pace of the meeting considerably by the use of elaborate charts showing advertising results of different junior colleges with respect to their investment, the high and low months, and the effective and ineffective use of space, copy, and design.

He said, "We can define advertising as:

"Causing another to know, to remember, and to do: or a technique of communication.

"We are not talking of the purchase of a list of names of high school juniors or seniors to whom we send a special folder, nor of the making of a movie for use by a representative at college nights or to be seen at some enrollment bureau office, nor of the sending of a glee club or other group for an appearance at a high school, woman's club, or alumni, or group of prospects, nor of word of mouth advertising. For purposes of this discussion, we are thinking of the purchase of white space in magazines and newspapers for the most part with established educational directories.

"In the kind of advertising we have in mind, you have control—what you say, where you say it, how you say it,

and to whom you say it. The publishers assure you of the audience and guarantee the circulation of the publications carrying your message.

"You should advertise because you are dealing with a *parade*, not a *convention*. You can't tell the story once and expect it to be remembered, but you have to continue to repeat it. Professor Walter Dill Scott of Northwestern pointed out some years ago, and it is probably still true, that:

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|---|
| 25 per cent forget impression after one day |
| 40 per cent forget impression after two days |
| 85 per cent forget impression after four days |
| 96 per cent forget impression after seven days." |

Mr. Glendening quoted statistics to the effect that the gain in college population from 1954-1970 was estimated at 71 per cent; that the high school population would increase from 9,000,000 to 14,000,000 in the same period; and that the girl teen-age population would increase by 45.1 per cent.

Mr. Glendening cited the results of magazine inquiries in several cases as follows:

REDBOOK finds 20-25 per cent of its inquiries asking for courses offered by junior colleges.

COSMOPOLITAN, for seven months (October 1953-through April 1954) received 727 direct inquiries. Twenty-eight per cent of these were

for colleges and 6 per cent for junior colleges. An additional 128 (17 per cent) were for specific courses—which are offered in junior colleges.

MADEMOISELLE: Nineteen per cent of inquiries for colleges or junior colleges.

HARPER'S BAZAAR: Nine hundred and thirty inquiries from August, 1953, through April, 1954. Two hundred seventy (28 per cent) asked for colleges; 126 (13 per cent) for junior colleges. From September, 1952, through August, 1953, there were 354 requests for college information, and 199 for junior colleges representing 17 per cent of total inquiries.

VOGUE reports 19 per cent of total inquiries made of its bureau are for junior colleges.

HERALD TRIBUNE, 11 per cent for junior colleges and 16 per cent for four-year colleges.

NEW YORK TIMES, in 1953, had some 8,000 inquiries for school information. We do not know what percentage requested junior college information, but could assume that the same percentage would prevail as for other publications—16 per cent to 20 per cent. The **TIMES** publishes material regarding the junior college. It is well for junior colleges to avail themselves of the opportunity for publication of news releases in the **TIMES**, **HERALD TRIBUNE**, and other papers.

The discussion following Mr. Glendenning's paper centered around the subjects of timing, design, media, and costs. It was pointed out that private and public junior colleges had very different problems to face in the field of advertising as well as in the areas of fund raising and alumni relations previously discussed.

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Other members of the Public Relations Panel were:

Dr. Alfred T. Hill, Chairman, Pine Manor Junior College

Miss Luella McCalla, Recorder, Pine Manor Junior College

Miss Constance Leighton, Director of Public Relations, Bradford Junior College

Mr. Frederick B. Odell, Director of Public Relations, Centenary Junior College

Miss Eleanor G. Sands, Director of Public Relations, Garland Junior College

Mr. Frederick M. Wheelock, Cazenovia Junior College

Mr. Corbin Lyman, Dean of Administration, Green Mountain Junior College

All three sessions of the Panel were well attended, and the discussion periods afforded wide participation on a practical level.

Dr. Kenneth C. MacKay, President of Union Junior College, Cranford, New Jersey, presided tactfully and efficiently at all general sessions and extended a welcome to visitors from other regions for next year.

New Recruitment Methods for Engineering Students

CLARENCE E. GUSE, WALTER S. HERTZOG, JR.,
ROY H. LUKE

A NEW and somewhat different approach to recruitment of engineering students was found in the Engineering Industry Exposition held at East Los Angeles Junior College in the spring of 1953. The exposition was planned to direct the attention of interested high school and college students toward the entire range of job possibilities in engineering industries. Since the shortage of engineering technicians is as acute as that of engineers, emphasis was placed on careers in engineering industries. It was felt that through exhibits, models, photographs, charts, and drawings, as well as through group and individual conferences, this object could be achieved.

The general plan was to have exhibit material which would show the level as well as types of engineering activities. Each exhibit had to meet the following requirements: (1) It must be educational. (2) It must illustrate a type of engineering activity such as an exciting structure, a new material, or an interesting method used in production.

The first step was to secure coopera-

Members of the faculty of East Los Angeles Junior College, CLARENCE E. GUSE is Coordinator of the Industry Division; WALTER S. HERTZOG, JR., is Dean of Admissions and Instruction; and ROY H. LUKE is Counselor at the college.

tion of various groups: the Merchants and Manufacturers Association, the Joint College Federal Civil Service Council of Southern California, the Engineers Council, and the high schools. The support of the Merchants and Manufacturers was vital, for through them, leading industries were informed of the plans, and representatives of the college and industry jointly planned the exhibits.

The college received the finest co-operation from Southern California industries personnel who asked only what was wanted and then suggested what was available. Most of the material had been shown at industrial expositions previously, but a few exhibits were prepared especially for this showing. In all cases, older displays were repaired and repainted for the occasion. Some exhibits being prepared for showing in other parts of the coun-

try were lent to the junior college first, and many thousands of dollars were represented by the displays. There were working models, scale models of complete plants, cut away models, animated flow sheets, material and product displays representing most of the fields of engineering. Typical were an actual wind tunnel test model of a current fighter airplane, a cut away of the main gear box for a helicopter, and a cut away (full size) of the G 47 jet engine being used on the latest U. S. Air Force airplanes. This last was lent by the United States Air Force through the Joint College Federal Service Council of Southern California and proved the most popular exhibit of the show. Other exhibits illustrated dams and other hydraulic works, electric transmission lines, transcontinental gas pipe lines, petroleum refineries, oil well production, electric motors, electronics and high frequency telephone transmission. Exhibitors placed their own material, for the most part, and in a few cases provided demonstrators. They also bore all of the expense connected with the show. A few exhibits of a scientific nature were set up and manned by junior college students.

The exposition, which was held in the evenings, opened on a Friday and remained open for four evenings, being closed on Sunday. The first evening was especially planned for high school students. Printed announcements and programs were distributed through the high schools of the area

to students in mathematics, science, and technical classes. Announcements were also placed in local libraries.

The Engineering Council obtained Dr. Royal W. Sorensen of California Institute of Technology and one time president of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers to speak to the students and their parents.

The exposition was held in the foyer and on the stage of the large new theater-auditorium. Dr. Sorensen, speaking out of his long experience, stressed the importance of "Mechanics, Technicians, and Engineers," and emphasized the qualifications necessary for each. He paid tribute to the work being done by the junior colleges, especially in the training of the technicians which he considered important to engineering activity.

Representatives of the colleges and universities of the state offering courses in engineering had been invited to be present. After Dr. Sorensen's speech, the high school students and their parents were invited to confer with them and with representatives of the engineering societies who were also present.

The exposition was held upon the following Saturday, Monday, and Tuesday evenings, although there was no program except on the first evening. Attendance was good. Surprisingly, Monday and Tuesday were very well attended, but the Saturday attendance was light. It appears that people, especially in large cities, have so many ac-

tivities that week ends are not the best times for events of this type.

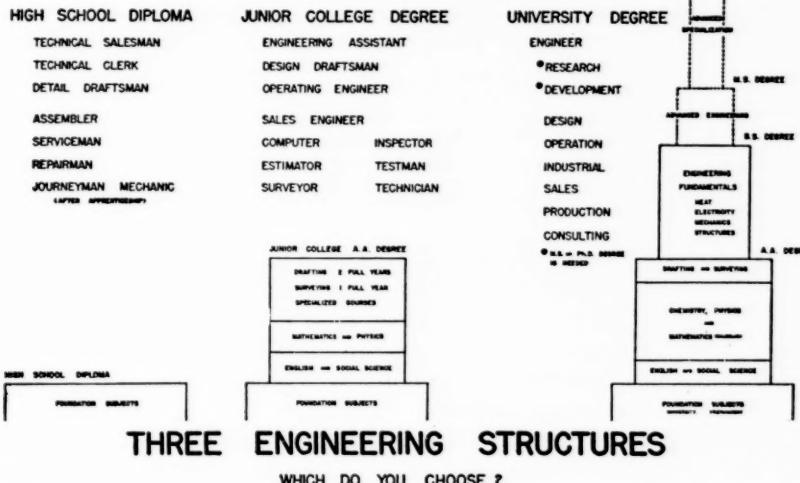
At the time this is written, there is little tangible evidence of the value of such an exposition in attracting students to engineering, though the educational value of the exposition was obvious. Much of the display material had been shown previously, only in industrial expositions to which students were not invited. Here they could examine at close hand and ask all the questions they wished. The advertising value to the exhibitors was certainly negligible, for students and their par-

ents are not large buyers of engineering equipment or products. Exhibiting industries were most enthusiastic however, and have asked whether the exposition was to become a regular affair.

The general reaction to the exposition was excellent. Those who saw the exhibits were duly impressed. The college feels that there is a real advantage in combining the visual with the auditory when presenting the idea of careers. From the standpoint of public relations, the exposition was certainly justified.

Chart used at Engineering Industry Exposition at East Los Angeles Junior College

TRAINING FOR CAREERS IN THE ENGINEERING INDUSTRIES



A College Speech Tournament in the Community

FRANK L. ROBERTS

A STUDENT activity which functions in the community has special significance for the community college. Portland State College has developed such an activity through a speech contest which combines sound practices in speech education with worthwhile community service. The result is good education and good public relations.

For six years Portland State's annual Northwest Intercollegiate Town Meeting Tournament has been bringing college students of Oregon and Washington before scores of audiences throughout the Portland area during two days of intensive public speaking. While it is a speech contest, it is one in which the audiences are natural ones assembled in their regular meeting places to hear discussions of important public questions.

The Town Meeting tournament was deliberately designed to provide normal speech situations for a tournament as well as to provide programs which a variety of community groups would find interesting and profitable. Traditional debate was deemed inappropriate for this tournament for several reasons. First, it is important when students are talking to real audiences that they be encouraged to be

FRANK L. ROBERTS, Assistant Professor of Speech at the Portland State Extension Center, originated and has directed the Town Meeting Tournament since its inception.

sincere, while traditional debate restricts them to "either-or" arguments in support of positions in which they may or may not actually believe. In addition, traditional debate fails to appeal to many audiences because of its formality and lack of variety and the absence of audience participation. Finally, traditional debate does not easily lend itself to the flexible time limits—from 30 minutes to an hour—made necessary by the variety of audiences in this tournament.

The tournament which has been developed is probably unique among speech contests in four respects: its debate form, its inclusion of moderators as well as public speakers, its use of audiences, and its use of audience rather than "expert" judging.

In brief, each participating college enters three speakers, each of whom is prepared to present his own "answer" to the tournament question. Each contestant speaks five times during the two-day tournament, each time to a different audience and with a com-

pletely different panel of three speakers all of whose "answers" are different. The programs are in effect three-way debates in which there are short constructive speeches, a cross-question period, a forum period for audience participation, and brief summary speeches. A contestant-moderator handles each program.

Probably the audience situations this tournament provides are of greatest interest to educators just as they are to the contestants. This year, with 13 colleges entering a total of 39 speakers, there were 65 different audiences during the two-day tournament. The audiences were about equally divided among college social science classes on three Portland campuses, high school senior social studies classes or assemblies, and community service clubs at their breakfast, luncheon, or dinner meetings. Each speaker and moderator spoke for at least one of each of these types of audiences. This year more than 5,000 students and adults heard tournament debates in addition to the thousands who heard debates broadcast by two of Portland's major radio stations. The presence of audiences is undoubtedly the most stimulating and constructive feature of the tournament for students whose lot is usually artificial classroom and contest situations.

The method of judging employed in this tournament is an attempt to emphasize speaking effectiveness and audience adaptation. Ten ballots are

distributed at random among members of each audience, and the cumulative rankings given by all judges during the two days determine the winners of awards. The ballots ask the judges to rank the speakers on the basis of this question: "Which of the speakers has affected my thinking most—by shaking, by changing, or by strengthening my opinions?" Moderators are ranked by the members of the panels with which they appear.

Months ahead of the tournament a topic must be chosen which will be interesting and useful for high school, college, and adult audiences. It must be one that college students should be capable of speaking on, and it must be narrow enough to make possible a coherent debate yet broad enough that a variety of tenable solutions might be advanced. Finally, it must be one on which public opinion has not become so crystalized that public discussion is difficult. The initial community participation in the tournament comes when every club and every teacher who might be interested in having one of the debates is asked to help choose the topic. Some past tournament questions have been: "What should be our policy toward Russia?" "What should be the terms of a peace that would end the cold war?" and "What should be the bounds of Federal government?"

Scheduling debates for audiences which assemble at points throughout an area with a radius of about 25 miles raises real difficulties for a tournament

director. College instructors are cooperative in planning debates for their classes, and the coordinator for social studies of the Portland school system has made the arrangements for classes in Portland's eight high schools. Arrangements for adults' groups are more difficult to make. Many groups must be contacted before 20 or so can be found that meet at the right time, that don't already have a program scheduled, and that are interested in the type of program the tournament has to offer.

Arrangements of the speakers' schedules also require careful planning. First, a week before the contest, each contestant must report the position he will take on the tournament question so that he may be assigned to speak with students of differing opinions. Careful adjustment has to be made in the schedule before each audience can be provided with a panel of speakers which is available at the desired time. The problem is that no two of the speakers may have the same point of view, none may have appeared together before or spoken too often for this particular type of audience, nor may any two speakers represent the same college. Similar restrictions apply to moderators. To get the speakers from audience to audience, a motor

pool is organized among host students, contestants, and faculty sponsors.

Such a tournament has some fine rewards in public relations. Any college welcomes the opportunity to send some of its best students to speak to thousands of citizens of the community under the most favorable conditions, and the sponsoring college is in the position of making available to its community the best student speakers of many colleges. In arranging for the programs there is tremendous opportunity for developing cordial relations with men and women active in business, civic affairs, and education. In Portland radio stations have been generous with radio time for the tournament, while newspaper coverage and editorials in both of Portland's daily newspapers have helped to increase the prestige of the annual affair. The value to the colleges and their speech departments cannot be assessed.

The administration of a Town Meeting tournament involves many complications not present in more conventional speech tournaments, but the planning and hard work seem justified in terms of the educational value of the program, the enthusiastic response of students, and the fine public relations engendered in the community.

The Technical Institute and American Education

OTTO KRASH

THE PERIOD of transition from New York State experiment and support to the status of a community college supported by the people of the City of New York should provide the technical institute* personnel with impetus for taking stock of the achievements of the school—achievements of the board of trustees, administration, and faculty. But even more important may be the enterprise of reviewing the scope, function, and above all, the purposes of this type of program and its place within the historic framework of the American public or common school system.

Such a review and stock-taking reveals that the intention of supplying education and educational facilities to the American youth who are unable to cope with the traditional standards of the liberal arts college or engineering university, or to those youth who desire a low-cost semi-specialized technical competence—such stock-taking perceives in the public technological institute a most worthy purpose, con-

OTTO KRASH, who is Assistant Professor of Education at Hofstra College in New York, is a Fellow in the Philosophy of Education Society and in the John Dewey Society. His articles have appeared in Educational Theory and in the Junior College Journal.

sonant with the values of American public education. However, there are some questionable areas in such an educational development that call for public hearing and investigation before the venture is assumed as another financial burden upon the already strained public budget. Some of these question areas follow:

One, by what criteria are such curriculums as "Hotel Technology," "Ophthalmic Dispensing," "Petroleum Distribution" introduced in the program of a public school supported by public funds? Who is in charge of the decision-making, and in what way are these course programs acceptable as part of the curriculums of a publicly supported institution? In what way is the public assuming the financial responsibility of training semi-skilled persons for employment in business enterprises that perhaps ought to be "footing the bill" in training their own employees? In what way is it likely that

* The State University of New York, Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences, Brooklyn, New York. (Since changed to the New York City Community College of Applied Arts and Sciences).

the public may be assuming the financial responsibility for the unprofitable apprenticeship training traditionally assumed by American business? This area of questioning needs more of a public hearing than it has thus far received in New York City and New York State. And it is indeed the business of educators to inquire thus into what may prove to be one of the major trends in publicly supported junior college education in the United States.

Another area in need of further public hearing is that portion of American educational programs desiring to produce not merely highly skilled technicians, but citizen technicians who are aware of the world-setting in which each is a competitor of the technician residing in the Soviet Union. Our citizens need training and education in the responsibilities of democratic citizenship. What are these responsibilities; and, in a technical institute program, who shall be responsible for thus instructing the student body in the arts that are peculiar to citizenship in the United States? All too frequently, such responsibility for inculcating the knowledge of citizenship is left to a small segment of the teaching staff designated as social science or communication arts and skills departments. With time allotments noticeably weighted in the direction of technological departments, very little time of a two-year program is devoted to acquiring the competence and skills

needed to establish the loyalties and knowledges demanded of responsible citizenship. I have, therefore, attempted elsewhere* to establish the responsibility for inculcating the skills of democratic citizenship, at least in part, in the technological departments themselves: to place some of the educational responsibilities upon the shoulders of a technical teaching staff as well as upon short-time social science instructors.

How may the technical teacher aid in the production of a democratic citizen as well as a worker? One suggestion is that with more and more of our workers, professionals, and semi-skilled employees organized into powerful interest groups, we are in danger of unleashing kinds of power and influence in government that may misrepresent the interest of an enlightened membership. We may be nurturing an unenlightened citizenry. It is the business of social science and technological departments alike to enlighten youth enrolled in the technical institutes as to the activities of these powerful interest groups and to evaluate their activities in light of the purposes of a democratic society. Without such enlightenment, the products of these schools may indeed lend themselves to the support of groups who misrepresent or misinterpret their own narrow selfish interests as the interests of the country. How is the student-graduate to judge the ac-

* The *Junior College Journal*, March, 1954, Vol. XXIV, No. 7.

tivities of these groups without the knowledge of democratic values and without practice in evaluating these group activities in terms of the values and purposes of democracy? The efforts of powerful interest groups are exerted continuously for both selfish interest and public welfare on all levels of government — local, state and national.

It is obvious that the student graduate member of these powerful, politically active interest groups will be unable to discriminate among the prac-

tices of these groups—the practices of influencing government that uphold the sacred traditions of democratic process and those practices that profane the governmental structures at all levels in the United States. An enlightened citizenry becomes the responsibility of technologist and social scientist teacher alike.

This is another area that needs public scrutiny and exploration before the surge toward education in semi-skills becomes a full financial responsibility of the American public.



From the **EXECUTIVE SECRETARY'S DESK**

JESSE P. BOGUE

WE ARE pleased to publish an article by Miss Nelda Ann Dutton, a sophomore student at Wharton County Junior College of Wharton, Texas, regarding her attitudes and beliefs on the values of the junior college. The article was an original oration, under the direction of Mrs. Ruth R. Lemming, written for participation in the contests of the Texas Junior College Speech Association. We are publishing it because of its intrinsic value and also because it may be valuable in assisting other junior colleges to conduct college days at which time their own students will tell the visitors about the college. In this way two things will be accomplished: presently enrolled students will inform themselves more fully about the junior college and pass this information along to many thousands of high school seniors. It is likely that a high school senior will accept more readily the statements of junior college students than those of administrators

and teachers.

This I Believe

Nelda Ann Dutton

One night recently, I heard a radio program called "This I Believe" conducted by the outstanding CBS commentator, Edward R. Murrow. Mr. Murrow interviewed America's eldest statesman, Bernard M. Baruch, concerning his beliefs. This set me to thinking about my beliefs.

I, as a college girl, have beliefs of many kinds. Certain of these convictions are on religious matters. Others are on moral standards. I also have political tenets. Certain principles of social behavior are part of my creed. Others are concerned with my thoughts on education and its meaning.

This afternoon, I should like to tell you some of my opinions concerning the educational institution nearest my heart—The American Junior College! —*This I Believe!*

Recently I had an opportunity to voice my views on the junior college to a group of high school students from my home town. The occasion was the annual Senior Day honoring the graduating classes of all the high schools in the area served by our junior college.

I was given the privilege of escorting my friends on a short tour of our campus. We started in the cafeteria. I told them that this was where I usually began my day with a cup of coffee and a doughnut before going to my first class.

As we went down the hall of the main building, the students eagerly asked questions which I was just as eager to answer. A prospective Thespian spotted the speech room and asked about the opportunities in this field. This department is one of great interest to me; so I told her of the debate tournaments, local productions, and contests sponsored by the speech department and of the excellent opportunities for participation and for personal development.

We continued down the corridor where the trophy case caught the eye of an athlete. This led to an explanation of our extensive athletic program and of the vast opportunities for participation in sports where the competition is not as great as in a senior college.

When we entered the library, one of my girl friends asked, "Nelda, is the cost of attending a junior college really

cheaper than the cost of attending a senior college?" I replied that high on the list of advantages which I have realized was the amazingly low cost of attending the junior college. My first year cost me almost nothing. My bank account actually grew. This resulted in part from the fact that I was able to secure one of the many available scholarships, and in part from the fact that I lived at home and thus was able to deposit for future use the money received from my part-time job. After examining the extensive array of books, magazines, and newspapers in the library, we proceeded to the Student Union Building, or SUB, as we call it.

As we crossed the campus, I confided to one of my friends that even though I would not have admitted it when I first enrolled at the junior college in my 17th year, my mind was not "old" enough to absorb my first exposure to advanced learning in a strange and demanding environment. However, by beginning my college work in a junior college and remaining at home, my family, my teachers, my old friends, and familiar surroundings have helped me weather these introductions and keep my balance.

One of the boys asked anxiously, "Are the teachers willing to help you at the junior college?" My answer was that they are not only willing but eager to help. I told him that I did not believe the opportunity which I had for receiving an education could be dupli-

cated outside a junior college. The size of the classes and the personal touch between the instructors and the students have been constant aids to me. The teachers and students are personal friends, each understanding the capabilities, shortcomings, and problems of the other.

"But," exclaimed a doubting young lady, "I do not want to receive just a half-baked high school refresher education." I emphatically assured her that her concept of the junior college was wrong. I feel that I am receiving a real college education—the very finest kind of education—and that I am enjoying advantages that I could not have received at any other type of school.

In analyzing my junior college education, I wish to call attention to four distinct functions which it has fulfilled. First, it has served as a transition between high school and senior college. It has bridged the gap between immaturity and what I like to think is maturity. At any rate, I now feel more capable of undertaking senior college work because of my two years at the junior college.

This leads me to the second definite function of the junior college—it has built the foundation for advanced studies. One of my last year's classmates who is now attending The University of Texas told me recently that his two years in the junior college had been an invaluable preparation for his work there, and he felt that he really

learned in the junior college how to study and could do his work now much better than his friends who had gone directly from high school to the University. This gives me hope for my prospects next year in a senior college.

The third function of a junior college does not apply as directly to me as it does to many of my friends—those who have taken terminal vocational courses to prepare themselves for securing immediate jobs. Many of these young men and women are employed now at excellent salaries.

The last function is the strong point of a junior college which is lacking often in senior college. It is the development of a questioning and inquisitive mind. In many senior colleges the classes are very large, and a young student seldom has an opportunity to express himself on any matter. On the other hand, the junior college emphasizes and strives to develop the individuality of each student.

After touring the Student Union Building, we turned toward the auditorium. I explained that assemblies and programs are held here each Thursday. Sometimes out-of-town speakers are invited. The other assemblies are presented by students representing the various departments and clubs on the campus. On Tuesdays, the assembly period is used for an activity period. "Activity period," exclaimed a wide-eyed girl, "What kind of activities do you have here?" I named the clubs on the campus

which perform various functions during the year for both educational and entertainment purposes. Some of these clubs are the Aggie Club, the Rodeo Club, the Business Club, and the Phi Theta Kappa, which is the national honorary society for junior colleges. Also there are the concert choir, band, newspaper and annual staffs, and drill team, or starlettes, in which I participate.

Glancing down at my watch, I saw that we had exceeded the time allotted for the tour of the campus; so I rushed my friends to their career conferences, which were to be conducted by experts in their fields.

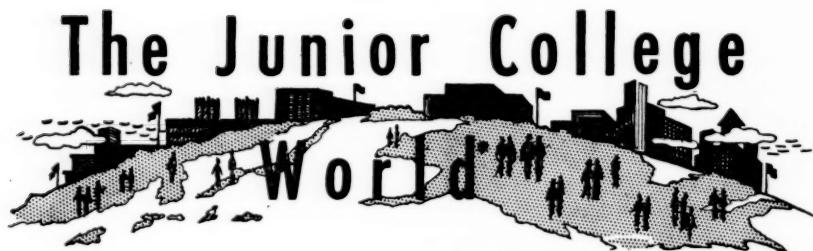
We met again later for the barbecued chicken lunch. I pointed out that this college probably was the first school in Texas to organize the Senior Day. Now nearly all junior colleges

and some senior colleges have Senior Day programs.

As I walked to the bus with the young people from my home town, one of them stated, "Well, I'll say this for you, Nelda, you've really sold us on the junior college." After waving an affectionate farewell to the departing high school students, I turned and looked out over the spacious campus of my junior college with its excellent facilities and its evident possibilities for expansion.

I thought again of Edward R. Murrow's radio program, which I had heard the night before. I thought of Bernard Baruch's expressed belief in the power of the mind of man. I thought of the things I had told my high school friends about my junior college.

This I Believe!



JESSE P. BOGUE

Eastern Oklahoma A. and M. College, Wilburton, has come into possession of an extensive tract of land for the future development of the college's program.

"The President of the United States has signed into law a bill recently passed by Congress authorizing a plan for the transfer of title of 2,613 acres of United States Government land to Eastern Oklahoma A. and M. College. The land is situated in Latimer County and adjoins the college campus on the north. The program of agricultural education will be expanded with the addition of these lands, thereby developing more fully one of the basic purposes of this state college.

"According to E. T. Dunlap, president of the college, 'Long-range plans call for development of a program of experimentation, research, and demonstration of good practices in beef production which involves soil improvement, feeding, grazing, good breeding,

and marketing. It is expected that in years to come this educational project will make a great contribution to beef producers in the area served by the college toward providing a greater return on their investment made in the cattle business.' "

* * *

Kendall College, Evanston, Illinois, observed its Founders' Day with Bishop Robert C. Raines as the main speaker. Bishop Raines spoke on the subject, "The Ramparts We Watch." In the course of his address he made statements which set forth some of the basic philosophy of the independent and church-related junior and senior colleges: "Two forces have made America the miracle she is. First, the day of the common man dawned. Our pioneer forebears came through privations and were driven by necessity to develop initiative, judgment, and leadership. They learned to associate themselves together voluntarily to

build churches, organize colleges, erect hospitals, and start schools. This was in sharp contrast with Europe where such socially desirable projects were always initiated, administered, and paid for by the central government. In America we discovered that in the common man are remarkable potentialities for leadership. Voluntary groups at the local level accomplished necessary social tasks.

"The second force which made America great was religious faith. Democracy is a spiritual reality. It consists in reverence for God, respect for the rights of others, determination to carry one's full load or responsibility, and the will to obey the law.

"Democracy walks on two spiritual feet. First, there is a very high faith in human beings as potential sons of God, endowed by their creator with certain inalienable rights. The other spiritual foot on which democracy walks is a high code of moral conduct. Religion, morality, and democracy are like the ceiling, sides, and floor of an elevator: they go up and down together.

"I am enthusiastic about Kendall College and its purposes and program because it is a current incarnation of the two vital forces which have made America great. It is a privately organized and administered, voluntarily supported institution, furnishing opportunity for young men and women who would otherwise not be able to secure an education. It has from the beginning been motivated by the

highest religious ideals and has been and is productive of religious devotion and leadership. Americans will be wise to invest in such an institution."

* * *

Kansas City Junior College, Kansas City, Missouri, recently published in *The Collegian*, the student paper, an interesting and encouraging article about the graduates of that institution who have become prominent in the world of science and business: "Through the courtesy of the former head of the junior college chemistry department, now retired, Dr. James E. Wildish, the names of many former students of junior college now prominent in the scientific and commercial field were obtained.

"During the meeting of the American Chemical Society March 23-April 1, some of the following appeared on the program: Dr. C. Kenneth Banks, Metal Thermit Corporation; Dr. A. E. Schubert, director of research, General Electric Co., Schenectady, N. Y.; Mr. Ralph Shank, engineering division of Phillips' Petroleum Co., Idaho Falls, Idaho; Dr. Gordon D. Byrkit, Mathieson Chemical Corp., Kenmore, N. Y.; Dr. Bernard M. Marks, Research Plastic Division, E. I. DuPont Co., Wilmington, Del.; Leonard V. Sorg, general chairman, Kansas City section of national meeting, research director, Sugar Creek division of Standard Oil. In talking with Dr. Wildish, the latter

mentioned the fine preparation he received at junior college.

"Dr. Wildish ate dinner and visited with Dr. I. B. Douglass, who taught at junior college, 1930-31. He finished his doctorate at the University of Kansas, and teaches at the University of Maine."

* * *

Bethany Lutheran College, Mankato, Minnesota, has recently published a bulletin entitled, "After Twenty-Five Years," which sets forth clearly and boldly the aims and objectives of this church-related college. It was written by President B. W. Teigen, reviews the past 25 years of its history, and gives the reasons why the Lutheran Synod purchased the school, supports it with money, encourages its youth to attend, and gives the college its strong moral backing.

The church and the college state at the beginning that the first aim of their educational program is to teach students "to grow in grace and in the knowledge of the Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, by means of His Gospel." The college agrees that the true aim of education is to liberate the mind from the bondage of ignorance, prejudice, fear, and special interest, but repudiates the thought that a Christian college has no responsibility for supporting and teaching a particular religion. We quote further from the Bulletin:

"In planning for the future, Bethany will not overlook nor neglect preparing

students for valuable and useful service in this life. To that end it must continue to endeavor to secure and keep a competent faculty, provide adequate facilities, and teach those courses which will fit young people for the many varied activities that go to make up our complex life. A combined high school and junior college such as ours cannot pretend to provide all the technical training necessary to become lawyers, doctors, nurses, engineers, businessmen, farmers, and industrialists. But by providing a well-rounded program of general education, we can train the youth of the church through the critical high school years and the first two years of college. The fact that the educational world today has pretty well committed itself to two years of basic college training before specialization, will enable us to take care of nearly all our youth for at least two years of higher education. The crying need is to bring these facts home to our parents and children so that they are not misled into thinking that they must attend some large college or university from the very beginning of their college career. It is an absolutely unnecessary risk to take.

"Even in the semi-professional and vocational fields, a program of general education will serve adequately."

* * *

Legislation for Junior Colleges in Michigan, especially House Bill No. 437, was supported by the proponents with the following considerations. The

bill was approved by the Ways and Means Committee of the House and passed 78 to 11. The bill, however, reached the Senate too late for adequate hearings and was tabled during the final week of the session. Junior college leaders and citizens of Michigan interested in the further development of community colleges in that state have not taken the action of the Senate as a final answer. Efforts are being made to bring to the next session of the legislature full information about the colleges and their rights for a fair share of state support. The facts and reasons for this kind of support are:

1. The State of Michigan, through its legislature, has encouraged the extension of educational opportunity by means of community colleges and has enacted legislation to this end over a period of 40 years. However, the responsibility for financing community colleges has never been adequately recognized by the state.
2. Community colleges, besides offering higher educational opportunities parallel to those in the first two years of a liberal arts or engineering college, are in a unique position to offer terminal courses in business, trade, farming, and industry. Also, these institutions provide general educational opportunities to all citizens close to home.
3. The present need for support outside local subsidies and tuition exceeds funds available in the community college appropriation included in the school aid bill.
4. The major support for community colleges has always come from the local community. However, the area served by each community college exceeds that of the supporting district.
5. The healthy development of institutions of this type, which have proved their effectiveness in serving local areas, gives promise of meeting a substantial portion of the foreseeable enrollment increases in higher education economically.
6. In view of the above, it is impossible to continue the financing of community college education entirely from present sources without damage to the other educational responsibilities of the supporting districts or to the public schools of the state as a whole.

"Since community colleges serve local areas as the high schools do, they should receive state support at least equal to that allowed per pupil for secondary schools. Since

they also provide lower division higher education as the state colleges do, and will continue to assist these institutions in meeting higher education problems of the state, they should receive state support not in excess of that allowed for lower division education in the state colleges."

Junior Colleges in Illinois, through the Illinois Junior College Association, are keeping up their running fight for financial consideration from the State. During the present year they sought flat grants of \$200 per student in average daily attendance at the smaller colleges, somewhat smaller grants for enrollments between four and eight hundred and at least \$100 per student for all above the 800 mark. On January 6, President Morey of the University of Illinois, in listing possible solutions to the oncoming increases of college enrollments, said: "The State could provide direct financial support to community junior colleges which would absorb a great deal of the freshman-sophomore load. There is permissive junior college legislation, but the number of junior colleges is relatively small because local political units have been unable to finance them. Direct financial grants to school systems might be lower in cost per student than any other method."

The Illinois Association brought to the consideration of the School Problems Commission of the State Government significant facts: "Out of almost 9,000 full-time students in the public junior colleges in Illinois today we find many large groupings, as over 1600 in pre-commerce, almost 800 in training to become teachers, almost 100 in pre-engineering, more than 60 in forestry and agriculture, 1820 in liberal arts, 281 pre-law students, 209 pre-meds, 244 in pre-nursing, 22 pre-

veterinarians, 320 secretaries, 154 prospective physical education instructors, and 123 who are training to become social service workers.

"The three junior colleges in Chicago, with the great bulk of junior college enrollment, have agreed to forego any demands for equal financial support, with the idea in mind that if larger grants were made to smaller junior colleges, more of them would be established and greater numbers of students throughout the state thus be served."

* * *

The Junior College Movement as it is viewed by newspapers, political leaders, and educators in Texas was used effectively in a brochure published by Tyler Junior College, Tyler, Texas. We quote some of these statements:

The University of Texas: "Over the last 20 years a continually increasing number of junior college graduates have continued their work in The University of Texas. Among them are numbered many of our finest students —students of whom we are very proud." H. Y. McCown, Registrar and Director of Admissions.

* * *

The Tyler Courier-Times-Telegraph: "The junior college is the most rapidly growing and progressive unit in the American educational setup. This makes it possible for the children of a family of the most moderate means to secure at least two years of college

education. Classes are smaller. The students get more individual attention, and have better guidance as to course of study selection."

Senator Lyndon Johnson: "An important unit in that system (The American Education System) is the junior college. Junior colleges in the United States have an enrollment of more than half a million students. They are doing a wonderful job."—Extension of Remarks in the United States Senate Journal.

* * *

The Austin American: "—The usefulness of the junior colleges has been shown by their tremendous gains in

the past half-dozen years."

The Fort Worth Star-Telegram: "—Overall, the junior college development should be welcomed and encouraged, even if the ultimate result is a profound change in the pattern of higher education in the United States, involving readjustments between both high schools and the senior colleges and universities. Indeed, the change may already be overdue."

* * *

The Dallas Morning News: "—In Education, a move in the right direction has already been made in the establishment of many junior colleges . . ."

Current Publications Received of Interest to Junior College Readers

Art. A Concept of Art Education. (Book I) California: The Professional Committee on Art Education of the California School Supervisors' Association, 1954. P. 47. \$1.

Produced by art supervisors, general supervisors, teachers, and other interested persons in the State of California, this booklet gives illustrations and information regarding the scope of the art program.

Cronbach, Lee J. *Educational Psychology.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1954. Pp. xxvii+628.

This book seeks to bring the principles of educational psychology to teachers and prospective teachers in such a way that they can perform their vital tasks more intelligently.

Eckert, Ruth E., and Keller, Robert J. (eds.) *A University Looks at Its Program.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954. Pp. xii+223. \$4.

The 23 studies presented here are illustrative of the educational research conducted under the Minnesota plan during the decade of 1942-1952. These reports will be useful to college and university administrators, faculties, and research specialists.

Eells, Walter Crosby. *Communism in Education in Asia, Africa and the Far Pacific.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1954, P. x+246. \$3.

This careful reporting of conditions, events, and opinions in 39 countries of

the Near and Far East will give the American public a better perspective on some of the problems.

Eoff, Sherman H., and Ramirez-Araujo, Alejandro. (eds.) *Zalacain el Aventurero.* (Graded Spanish Readers, Book Four.) New York: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1954. Pp. vi+119.

The present simplified version of this book is designed for use as a second semester text following Book III in the Houghton-Mifflin series of graded readers.

Horkheimer, Mary Foley, and Diffor, John W. (eds.) *Educators' Guide to Free Films.* Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service, 1954. Pp. xiv+566. \$6.

This 14th annual edition lists 408 more titles than the previous edition and is the largest single annual revision in the history of the Film Guide.

Humphreys, J. Anthony, and Traxler, Arthur E. *Guidance Services.* (Professional Guidance Series.) Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954. Pp. xvii+438.

This book is intended to serve as an introduction to the field of student guidance services. In this the authors present basic concepts and procedures for guidance services at all educational levels.

Miller, Perry (ed.) *American Thought: Civil War to World War I.* New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1954. Pp. lxii+345. \$.95.

This anthology is designed to repre-

sent the basic configuration of thought in America between the end of the Civil War and America's entrance into the First World War.

Ralph, Philip Lee. *The Story of Our Civilization*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1954. Pp. 319. \$3.75.

This book evaluates the achievements and limitations of our culture and society, its strengths and weaknesses, and the values which have emerged from the experiences of all Western nations.

Robinson, C. A., Jr. (ed.) *An Anthology of Greek Drama*. (Second series.) New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1954. Pp. xxi+368. \$95.

This book, with an introduction by the editor, contains translations of great Greek works by such famous authors as Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes.

Robinson, Charles Alexander, Jr. (ed.) *The Spring of Civilization*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1954. Pp. xv+464. \$7.50.

The purpose of this book is to set forth for the general reader a rounded first-hand account of the meaning and significance of the greatest period in antiquity and one of the greatest ages in the history of man, the period known as Periclean Athens.

Traxler, Arthur E. (ed.) *Strengthening Education at All Levels*. (Report of the 18th Educational Conference held under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education.) Washington: American Council on Education, 1954. Pp. ix+156. \$1.50.

This report of the 18th Educational Conference contains full details and

reprints of talks given at the meeting in New York City in October, 1953.

Schurz, William Lytle. *This New World*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1954. Pp. xii+429. \$6. This is a complete, up-to-date, and authoritative book on Latin American civilization, detailing the various elements which have helped to mold the character of the Latin American republics.

Scott, C. Winfield, and Hill, Clyde M. (eds.) *Public Education Under Criticism*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. Pp. xiv+414. \$4.75.

This book presents penetrative articles from leading magazines and educational journals dealing with criticisms of our public school system. The book has been compiled in the hope that the book will help critics and defenders of education toward an effective compromise.

Shane, Harold G., and Yauch, Wilbur A. *Creative School Administration*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1954. Pp. x+566. \$4.50.

This book was written to share with prospective and present administrators and supervisors certain viewpoints regarding the nature and functions of able leadership, and to portray such leadership in action in the improvement of school living.

Unger, M. A. *Real Estate*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1954. Pp. x+565.

Designed for a one-semester basic course in real estate, this book contains chapters logically organized so even the most difficult principles can be grasped readily by students.



Recent Writings...
**JUDGING THE
NEW BOOKS**

FRANCIS P. KING, *Financing the College Education of Faculty Children*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1954. Pp. xii+115.

This is a report of a study conducted by Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association for the Fund for the Advancement of Education. The latter organization, seriously concerned over the need to attract men of the highest calibre to the college teaching profession in the face of mounting competition for their services by business, industry, and professions other than teaching, provided the necessary funds for investigating the problems faced by faculty members in financing the college education of their children.

Although the primary purpose of the report was to investigate the importance of the role played by these problems in the recruitment of qualified men into the teaching profession, the information that was gathered should be of invaluable assistance to the college faculty member in plan-

ning for the higher education of his children as well. The foresighted administrator, concerned with the welfare and improvement of his teaching staff, will also find the book a valuable source of information.

The first chapter deals with the framework within which the study was formulated and the research methods employed. At the outset, it is recognized that raising the academic salary is probably the only satisfactory solution to the problem of attracting desirable people into college teaching. At the same time, significant raises in the near future are considered unlikely in view of the pressing financial situation now prevailing in many educational institutions. Under such conditions, an investigation of "fringe benefits," which might attract qualified teachers without creating a great financial burden for the educational institutions, was deemed appropriate. Aid to faculty members in financing the education of their children was considered one such benefit worthy of study.

Information pertaining to the problem was gathered through interviews with selected faculty members and administrators in 23 colleges and universities, through consultation with leaders in the field of education, and through collection or examination of data on such relevant matters as faculty salary levels, cost of undergraduate education, and new and existing methods of financing the education of faculty children. The author advances no claim that the population studied represents a scientifically selected cross section of American college teachers, but intensive spot checks were made with administrators and faculty members from colleges and universities, both large and small, public and private, and coeducational and non-coeducational. It was considered that the nature of the problem demanded more penetrating research techniques than the traditional questionnaire methods could afford, and the high cost of conducting the necessary open-end interviews prohibited as wide a survey as was desired.

Chapter 2 furnishes the reader a wealth of background data concerning the characteristics of higher educational institutions and the faculty population. In reference to cost per student, the range was found to be very wide, with total expenses generally ranging from \$1,000 to \$1,500 per year. Costs tended to be highest in privately supported women's colleges and somewhat lower in private colleges for men or

private coeducational colleges or universities. In general, tuition was lowest at public institutions, resulting in substantially lower overall expenses. However, it was found that a large percentage of private institutions grant tuition discounts to faculty children, and this practice tends to minimize the disparity. Another factor contributing to reduced cost is that of having the children attend the local institution so as to permit them to continue living at home.

Chapter 3 is essentially a report of the currently prevailing patterns, preferences, and financial resources which constitute important elements within the total problem of educating faculty children.

The survey indicates that the vast majority of faculty members consider it desirable to send their children to some institution other than the one in which they teach. The main reasons given are that a new and relatively independent environment is considered an essential part of the educative process, and that attending the father's institution may create social situations that will be embarrassing and distracting both to the parent and the child. Aside from this preference factor, the faculty member of a non-coeducational college or a specialized institution may be faced with the fact that the sex or the vocational choice of his child prevents his availing himself of the reduced cost of attending the local institution.

In general, teaching salaries were found to be lower in private institutions than in tax-supported institutions. However, the economic status of the teaching profession as a whole has shown a decided decline since 1940 in comparison with other professional groups. Indeed, it is demonstrated that the average beginning annual salary in college teaching for a person with an M.A. or Ph.D. degree is lower than that in industry for a person with an A.B. degree. In addition, rates of promotion are considerably slower in the teaching profession. The low faculty income, coupled with a higher than average concern over faculty children's higher education, has served to accentuate the problem of financing such education.

Methods of financing that are employed are quite diverse. Some members utilize savings for the purpose, and a very few use endowment insurance, most of which is in entirely inadequate amounts. Scholarships and awards are of some assistance. The student often helps himself through part-time work. In spite of the disadvantages inherent in such a course of action, a large number of faculty children reduce the financial burden by attending the local institution and living at home. More and more are gaining assistance from tuition discounts, but these are restricted almost entirely to private institutions. Recently a Faculty Children's Tuition Exchange has been organized, allowing recipro-

cal remission of tuition to faculty children of member institutions. As of January, 1954, 72 colleges and universities (listed, incidentally, in an appendix to the report) had joined this plan which permits children to take advantage of the tuition discount without the usual attendant disadvantages of attending the local institution.

In Chapter 4, the author concerns himself with the exposition and assessment of a variety of possible methods which may be appropriate to the financing of a college education. This portion of the report should be particularly useful, not only to the outside agency interested in increasing the attractiveness of the teaching profession through aid programs, but to the individual faculty member planning his own program.

First, a number of insurance programs are thoroughly analyzed. Considerable attention is devoted to both endowment insurance, with its emphasis on savings and educational benefits for children during the lifetime of the insured, and to ordinary life and term insurance, which emphasize protection and educational benefits in the event of the death of the insured, with minimal emphasis on the savings aspect of insurance. A compromise embodying some of the benefits of both plans is suggested for those faculty members who can afford such a program.

Some type of group educational endowment plan, similar to many of the

group life or sickness and accident plans now in effect, is suggested as a possibility. Under such a plan, costs would be met jointly by the faculty members themselves and by an independent outside agency or foundation. The author is skeptical about the feasibility of such a program, however. It is pointed out the cost of a program substantial enough to be generally worthwhile would probably be prohibitive either to the already financially hard-pressed teacher or to the contributing agency.

Personal savings and investment programs are also reviewed. The financial problem seems to be one of insufficiency of income rather than inability to formulate adequate savings or investment plans. Nevertheless, it was found that most faculty children who wanted to attend college did so in one way or another. The question is apparently one of the amount of sacrifice involved for the faculty parent, a sacrifice substantially greater than that in some of the other professions. The possibilities of savings in banks and bonds, equity investments, and combinations of the two are all analyzed and evaluated.

The question of borrowing for educational purposes is also treated. Teachers vary widely in their attitudes toward borrowing for this purpose. There is considerable reluctance toward collateral borrowing which involves loans on insurance or the mortgaging of real property. Student loans

are a well-known form of educational aid, but their extensive use seems to be avoided by the majority of students, probably for a multiplicity of reasons. Included among them may be reluctance on the part of both the student and his parents to have him emerge from college in debt.

A loan plan whereby the college expenses of the faculty child could be prorated over a longer period than the four years of actual attendance is proposed and examined. The plan, involving no mortgages or collateral, had considerable appeal for a number of the faculty members interviewed. However, teachers with children tended to think of the proposal more in terms of their own problems than in terms of the general attractiveness of teaching, and administrators were skeptical of its role in the advancement of recruitment.

The final chapter consists of certain recommendations and conclusions based upon the results of the investigation. First, it is conceded that aid in financing the college education of faculty children, in whatever form it may take, may solve certain individual problems without necessarily making teaching more attractive as a profession. As a fringe benefit, it may conceivably encourage some to remain in the profession, but it is likely to be too remote a benefit to have a significant effect on the recruitment of capable young people to the profession.

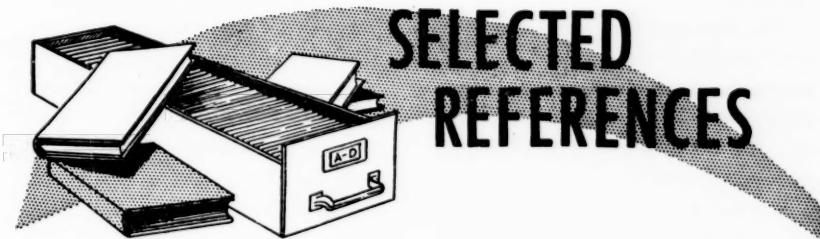
Nevertheless, as an outgrowth of the study, two recommendations are made to the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Essentially, they are, (1) that the Faculty Children's Tuition Exchange be formalized, strengthened, and expanded, and (2) that further study be given to the desirability of establishing a Faculty Children's College Education Savings and Loan Plan. According to the foreword by President R. McAllister Lloyd of the TIAA, action has already been initiated to put the first recommendation into effect with a grant by the Fund to assist the Tuition Exchange.

In conducting the investigation, the author reached the conclusion that, in spite of the pressing need for solution of the problem at hand, several other problems are even more important to the individual faculty member and the college teaching profession in general. Among these may be retirement problems, medical and hospital expenses, financial protection in the event of disability, grants for summer research and writing, and a number of others

which are discussed in a highly informative appendix to the report. These additional observations have not gone unnoticed in that one of the functions of the Tuition Exchange under its grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education is to "explore other ways of making college teaching more attractive, as outlined in the present study."

In his dual role as a faculty father and as one vitally interested in the advancement of the college teaching profession, the reviewer found the present book highly interesting and informative. The author is to be commended for an excellent research job, and for the objectivity of his report. Certainly the underpaid faculty member, weary of his oft encountered task of wading through mountains of excess verbiage in his search for the essential elements in reports, should be highly appreciative of the directness and brevity of the present work, together with its resultant low price.

JACKSON B. REID
The University of Texas



MARVIN L. BAKER

SEARLES, JOHN R. "Bridging Gaps Between Levels", *The English Journal*, Vol. XLIII, No. 6, September, 1954. pp. 304-307.

John R. Searles, head of the English Department, Wisconsin High School, Madison, and also professor in both the Department of English and the Department of Education at the University of Wisconsin, gave this article as an address at the Midwest English Conference in Kahoma, Indiana, last April. As a teacher in both the secondary school and the college, he is in an excellent position to learn about the thinking of high school and college teachers. He feels that the complaints, in regard to preparation of students for particular courses, although still as frequent as ever, "are becoming more moderate: that there is less desire than there once was to determine guilt, and a greater desire to take constructive action and to unite in a common effort to deal with a common problem."

Local teacher groups throughout the country give evidence that such an effort is now being made. Teachers attending summer classes want to know how they can unify their labors. The author also points out the fine work of the National Council of Teachers of English. The pooling of resources of hundreds of teachers all over the country gives further evidence of progress.

High school teachers have been asking college instructors what their English students will need in order to do successful work in college. These college instructors answer: "We do not expect the teaching of some common body of subject matter as a guarantee of success in college. If our students have read widely and have intellectual curiosity and a rich background of knowledge, we are grateful, of course. But most of all we want literacy." The college instructor feels it is his task to "furnish the sufficient

knowledges required for professional competency."

The statements above would be as good for the vocational or terminal students as for the college preparatory student. The author does not believe that the "gaps between levels in our schools are anything more than the symptoms of a gap which is far more serious." Whatever the teachers may do to help each student to "achieve, to the limit of his powers, mastery of

essential skills", they can never bring about a "uniformity of development in all students." On this problem the author placed greatest emphasis.

The author closed the article with the following statement: ". . . if we have put first things first, and have helped each individual to progress as far as his abilities allow, I, for one, will feel that we have achieved the high success, the ultimate reward of our labors."



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